DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 177 034 SO 011 968

AUTHOR Wagstaff, Lonnie H.; And Others
TITLE Principals and Citizenship Education: A Guide for Effective Leadership.
INSTITUTION Ohio State Univ., Columbus. Mershon Center.; Social Science Education Consortium, Inc., Boulder, Colo.
SPONS AGENCY National Inst. of Education (DHEW), Washington, D.C.
PUB DATE 79
CONTRACT 400-78-0050
NOTE 117p.; For related documents, see SO 011 969-973; Competency checklists may not reproduce clearly from EDRS in paper copy due to small print type of original document

EDRS PRICE MF01/PC05 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS Citizen Role; *Citizenship; Citizenship Responsibility; *Educational Improvement; Elementary Secondary Education; *Leadership; *Principals; Program Administration; Role Models; School Administration; School Environment; *Social Studies; Values

ABSTRACT

Part of the Basic Citizenship Competencies Project, this guide is intended for elementary and secondary school principals. It suggests school management practices and leadership strategies to be used in developing a favorable school climate for citizenship education, and in encouraging teachers to think systematically about citizenship goals and instruction. The objective of the entire project is to assist educators, parents, and community leaders in identifying basics, clarifying goals, making assessments, and developing action plans related to citizenship education. The administrative guide is designed to assist the principal in promoting the development of citizenship competencies. It is presented in five parts. Part I considers the importance of citizenship education for schools and principals. Part II describes elements of citizenship education by defining civic literacy and identifying seven basic citizenship competencies such as acquiring and using information, assessing involvement, making decisions, making judgments, communicating, cooperating, and promoting interests. Part III explains how principals model citizenship behavior for faculty and students. Part IV discusses three ways principals can promote better citizenship education, including curriculum and instruction, school climate, and linkage of school and community. Part V suggests leadership strategies for principals. Eight appendices include a summary of citizenship competencies, evaluation sources, bibliographies, school climate checklists, and a community resource checklist. (Author/CK)

****
* Reproductions supplied by EDRS are the best that can be made *
* from the original document. *
****

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION & WELFARE
NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF EDUCATION

THIS DOCUMENT HAS BEEN REPRODUCED EXACTLY AS RECEIVED FROM THE PERSON OR ORGANIZATION ORIGINATING IT. POINTS OF VIEW OR OPINIONS STATED DO NOT NECESSARILY REPRESENT OFFICIAL NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF EDUCATION POSITION OR POLICY

50

ED177034

PRINCIPALS AND CITIZENSHIP EDUCATION

A Guide for Effective Leadership

by

Lonnie H. Wagstaff
Richard C. Remy
Rodney Ogawa
Richard McCullough

A Project of the
Citizenship Development Program
Mershon Center, Ohio State University

and the

Social Science Education Consortium
Boulder, Colorado

SO 011 964

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The Basic Citizenship Competencies Project wishes to acknowledge the contribution of the following individuals who served as members of a National Advisory Panel for this project.

Dr. Charlotte Anderson
Assistant Director
Law & Humanities Project
American Bar Association

Dr. Lee Anderson
Professor of Political Science
and Education
Northwestern University

Mr. Urban J. Bear Don't Walk
Attorney-at-Law
Billings, Montana

Dr. Kenneth Benne
Professor Emeritus
Philosophy & Organizational
Development
Boston University

Dr. Donald H. Bragaw
Chief, Instructional Services
The State Department of Education
The University of the State of
New York

Ms. Carolyn Burkhardt
Program Associate
National Center for Research in
Vocational Education

Dr. Janet Eyler
Social Studies Education
George Peabody College

Dr. Carole Hahn
School of Education
Emory University

Ms. Edna Jean Harper
Teacher, Alum Crest
Instructional Center
Columbus, Ohio

Mrs. Carol Kimmel
Immediate Past President
National Parent Teachers Assn.
Rock Island, Illinois

Dr. Roger LaRaus
School District #65
Evanston, Illinois

Mrs. Eva Legarde
Chairperson, ESEA
Advisory Panel for Title I
East Baton Rouge Parish
Baton Rouge, Louisiana

Dr. Evelyn Luckey
Assistant Superintendent
Columbus, Ohio Public Schools

Ms. Charen Martinez
Teacher, Junior High Social Studies
Westminster, Colorado

Dr. John Patrick
Professor of Education
Indiana University

Mr. Martin Shallenberger
Director of Public Affairs
Standard Oil Company

Dr. Roberta Sigel
Department of Political Science
Rutgers University

Dr. Barbara Winston
Associate Professor
Northeastern Illinois University

Professor L. Harmon Zeigler
Center for Educational Policy & Management
University of Oregon

The American Political Science
Association's Committee on Pre-
Collegiate Education

School Principals Group:

Ms. Catherine Crandell
Valleyview Elementary, Columbus, Ohio

Mr. Roger Dumaree
Columbus South High School, Columbus, Ohio

Ms. Catherine M. Feike
Douglas Alternative School, Columbus, Ohio

Mr. Titus A. Saunders, Jr.
Mohawk Junior High School, Columbus, Ohio

Mr. Ronald G. Sroufe
Whetstone High School, Columbus, Ohio

Mr. Curtis A. Smith
Bexley Junior High School, Bexley, Ohio

This is one of several source documents developed by the Basic Citizenship Competencies Project. This is a joint project of the Mershon Center, The Ohio State University, and the Social Science Education Consortium, Boulder, Colorado. The goal of this project has been to prepare materials that will assist educators, parents and community leaders as they seek to identify basics, clarify goals, make assessments and develop action plans related to citizenship education.

Products developed by the Project are:

Handbook of Basic Citizenship Competencies

Guide to Basic Citizenship Competencies: Recommendations to Compare Curriculum Materials, Assess Classroom Instruction, and set Goals

Principals and Citizenship Education: A Guide for Effective Leadership

The Community and Citizenship: A Guide for Planning and Leadership

Developing your Child's Citizenship Competence: A Parent's Guide

Executive Summary

These products were prepared under contract #400-78-0050 from the National Institute of Education, U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare. Their contents do not necessarily reflect the views of the National Institute of Education or of any agency of the United States Government.

CONTENTS

I. Schools and Citizenship Education 2

What stake do principals and schools have in education for citizenship?

The Level of Citizenship Competence 3

Unique Characteristics of Schools 5

School Does Effect Political Learning 7

Improved School Climate 8

II. What Are the Basic Citizenship Competencies? 10

Competence is defined and seven citizenship competencies are described.

The Meaning of Citizenship Competence 11
Self-Esteem 12
Civic Literacy 13

Seven Basic Citizenship Competencies 13
Acquiring and Using Information 17
Assessing Involvement 18
Making Decisions 19
Making Judgments 20
Communicating 21
Cooperating 22
Promoting Interests 23

Citizenship Competence in a Global Age 24

III. Citizenship Competency By Example and Precept: Principals as Model Citizens 28

Principals can and do model citizenship behavior for faculty and students.

IV. Opportunities for Improving Citizenship Education 30

Three ways principals can exercise leadership in citizenship education.

Curriculum and Instruction 33
Implications for Leadership 35

School Climate 36
Implications for Leadership 38

Linking School and Community 39

V. Leadership in Promoting Citizenship Education 45

General Strategies for Effective Leadership

Defining the Problem 46
The Nominal Group Technique (NGT) 47
The Decision Seminar 47

Defining Educational Purpose 49

Program Implementation 50
Introducing 50
Programming 50
Supporting 51
Motivating 51
Evaluating 52

Materials that can be used with and passed on to teachers:

Appendix 1: Summary Chart of Citizenship Competencies

Appendix 2: Citizenship Competence Checklist

Appendix 3: Sources for Evaluating Curriculum Materials

Appendix 4: Some Resources for Keeping up in Citizenship/Social Studies Education and a Selected Bibliography

Appendix 5: School Climate Checklists

Appendix 6: Sources on Participatory Management Strategies

Appendix 7: Community Resource Checklist for Principals

Appendix 8: Selected Readings on Community Involvement for Citizenship Education

INTRODUCTION

This Guide is designed to assist the principal in promoting the development of citizenship competencies. The Guide considers school management practices and leadership strategies principals can use to develop a school climate favorable to citizenship education, and to encourage their teaching staff to think more systematically about their goals and instruction in citizenship education.

By historical tradition and legal mandate schools already play a key role in educating students for citizen competence. Thus, the Guide does not call upon the principal to add yet another new element to the curriculum. Rather, the purpose of the Guide is to assist principals and their staffs to do better what they are already responsible for doing.

The Guide has five parts. Part I briefly considers the importance of citizenship education for schools and principals. Part II describes basic elements of citizenship education by defining civic literacy and identifying seven basic citizenship competencies. Part III considers how principals model citizenship behavior. Part IV discusses three ways principals can promote better citizenship education in their schools. Part V discusses leadership strategies for principals.

I. SCHOOLS AND CITIZENSHIP EDUCATION

Horace Mann was referring to citizenship education when he observed that:

> In order that men may be prepared for self-government, their apprenticeship must commence in childhood. The great moral attribute of self-government cannot be born and matured in a day; and if school children are not trained to it, we only prepare ourselves for disappointment.[1]

What is citizenship education? Citizenship education involves learning and instruction directed to the development of citizen competence. Some political scientists call this process political education. One recently described the process as involving "the training of people in the knowledge, skills and attitudes which are prerequisite for active and effective participation in civic life." The goal of this process, she added, "should be mature citizens who can both advocate and carry out appropriate political actions to further their perceived self-interest, while valuing longer-range perspective(s) . . . within some framework of the 'common good.'"[2] In this sense, citizenship education is a continuing challenge for each person and each succeeding generation.

By tradition and policy, citizenship education has been a special responsibility of elementary and secondary schools since the early days of the nation. Originally, in the public school concept, citizenship education was a major focus of all education. To some extent this is still the case. However, since the 1920's citizenship education also has been treated as one special area of study generally concentrated within the social studies area of the curriculum. In addition, social science research indicates that the social organization of schools and the classroom climate make up an "informal" or "hidden" curriculum that affects citizenship education and political learning in important but not yet fully understood ways.[3]

Schools today, as in the past, play a key role in the development of citizenship consciousness in the nation's youth. As formal leaders and managers of schools, principals are usually viewed as the individuals most responsible for insuring this development. A key premise of this Guide is that principals need citizenship education and citizenship education needs principals. Principals and their schools have a stake in citizenship education for these reasons:

1. There is a pressing need to improve the level of citizenship competence in American society.
2. Schools have characteristics which allow them to make a unique contribution to the development of citizenship competence.
3. New research documents that, contrary to earlier findings by Coleman, schools *do* have an important effect on student achievement.
4. Good citizenship education within the school can contribute not only to society but also to the smooth operation of the school itself.

The Level of Citizenship Competence

In recent years social science research, opinion polls, and the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) have amassed evidence to indicate the level of citizenship competence in the U.S. is disturbingly low. Problems exist in the area of political knowledge and literacy, commitment to democratic principles and political participation.

For example, research shows that knowledge about the basic structure and processes of the political system is not widely shared among adults.[4] As we might expect, these findings are mirrored in the younger generation. The NAEP recently described changes in political knowledge between its 1969 and 1976 citizenship/social studies assessments.* The results show that American students suffered losses in their understanding of the political process.

*The NAEP results are based on identical tests given to 145,000 of the nation's 13 and 17-year-olds in the early 1970's and in 1976.

In the 1976 survey, for example, slightly less than one-half of the 17 year-olds could name either of their congressmen or one of their senators. This represented a dip of nine percentage points from the 1970 study. And during the 1976 assessment, conducted in a presidential election year, only 36 percent of the 17 year-olds could tell how a presidential candidate is selected. This was a drop of 14 percentage points from the score run up by 17 year-olds in the earlier assessment.[5]

In an era of increasing global interdependence, the NAEP results also show a decline in the performance of 13 and 17 year olds on items relating to international affairs. And a nine-nation study conducted in 1971 involving 30,000 students 10 to 14 year-olds ranked Americans near the bottom in their interest in and knowledge about foreign affairs.[6]

Equally disturbing is the fact that research shows only small percentages of the adult and youth population committed to basic principles of democracy.[7] Further, many American students lack a comprehension of democracy. The 1976 NAEP assessment found the ability to explain the basic concept of democracy slipped 12 percentage points (from 86 percent to 74 percent) for 17 year-olds and 11 percentage points (from 53 to 42 percent) for 13 year-olds. These findings are supported by a recent study of 1,000 high school seniors which found the students had difficulty in solving political conflict situations through the application of democratic principles.[8]

With respect to political participation, studies indicate that less than one percent of the American citizenry ever runs for public office. Approximately five percent are ever active in political parties and election campaigns, and only about ten percent ever make financial contributions. Only about one-third of the population belong to

political organizations or interest groups. Less than fifty percent of the population will vote in Congressional elections not held in a presidential election year and only fifty-five to sixty percent will case a ballot in even the most hard-fought presidential election.[9]

Finally, today many public officials and institutions, including the schools, lack credibility, particularly with young citizens. In 1958, for example, the Institute for Social Research found 20% of the American people to be distrustful of political authority. By 1976 the proportion of distrustful citizens had run to 50%. Harris polls show confidence in both Congress and the Executive branch of government had slipped dramatically between 1966 and 1977 (from 41% to 23% for the executive and from 42% to 17% for Congress).[10]

The implications of such findings seem clear. For too many Americans citizenship education was *not* an experience which helped them to avoid some important political disabilities and handicaps. Nor was it an experience which helped them to develop the motivation and competence to acquire information about political life; to analyze complex problems and policy issues; to engage in cooperative problem solving and to responsibly protect their self-interest while promoting the public interest.

Unique Characteristics of Schools

The lack of citizenship competence would be of little direct concern to principals if schools had no opportunityto influence citizenship education. However, schools do have a rich array of opportunities to constructively guide students' citizenship education. These opportunities stem from important characteristics of schools as social institutions.[11]

First, whether they be small or large, urban or rural, "open" or highly structured, schools are potentially information-rich environments regarding knowledge about political life. Through the formal curriculum

as well as teacher expertise, schools contain the knowledge and analytical "tools" needed to help students develop citizenship competence. Just as we do not expect the mass-media or peer groups to teach fundamental concepts about physics, chemistry or mathematics, the same should be true for citizenship education. The best chance for teaching fundamental concepts of political life is probably to be had in the schools.

Second, schools provide a protective environment where students can develop and practice citizenship competencies. In the school the students' practice and experimentation can be undertaken in controlled instructional settings which maximize the opportunity for self-conscious reflection on the part of the student and integration with knowledge-building activities underway in the classroom.

Third, schools contain a large number of adults who occupy very salient places in the lives of students. Citizenship learning can and does result from the imitation of other's behavior. This process involves the modeling by the learner of the behavior of some other significant person. Whether they wish to or not, school personnel serve as important models of citizenship behavior for students. From observation of and interaction with adults student may acquire a wide range of citizenship behaviors and attitudes.

Finally, as a community institution local schools provide a proximate and readily accessible arena for civic activity by adults who participate in school-related elections, in PTA-type organizations and the like. Such activity can affect parent-child relations in ways important to the child's citizenship development. For example, by serving as an officer in a PTA-type organization a parent is modeling civic activity and involvement for his or her offspring. Similarly, by taking part in activities aimed at changing a school policy parents

may be indirectly or directly teaching their children about methods of influence available to citizens.

School Does Effect Political Learning

Given there is a need to improve the quality of citizenship education and that schools have characteristics relevant to the process, the question remains does school make a difference in student achievement? Since the 1966 release of Equality of Educational Opportunity by James Coleman, et. al., the question has occupied the attention of educational researchers and policy-makers. The 1966 Coleman report found "that schools bring little influence to bear on a child's achievement that is independent of his background and general social context."[12] Later studies seemed to confirm that schooling has relatively little effect on achievement.[13]

However, by 1975 Coleman had developed a more appropriate statistical technique for analyzing the relative effects of school on learning. Using the new technique he found a higher relative effect of school compared to home background than had previously been reported. In 1978 Ina Mullis, a senior researcher at NAEP, used the new Coleman technique to study the relative effect of home and school on student achievement in mathematics, political knowledge and socio-political attitudes.[14] The study was based on a nationally representative sample of 34,000 17 year old students who were part of the 1976 assessments.

The Mullis research confirms what many educators believed all along--what happens in the school and classroom makes a very big difference in what a student learns. Specifically Mullis found that in all three areas--mathematics, political knowledge and political attitudes--school had a significant and direct effect on student achievement. As would be expected, home background was also important. However, Mullis concludes:

> Even though home background had a large influence on achievement, so did schools . . . *Most of the effect of school is unrelated to home and has a large impact on achievement over and above the effect of the home circumstances of the student.*[15]

The study also showed that the effect of school on learning differed somewhat by subject area. The highest relative effect was found in the area of mathematics, the next highest on political attitudes and the next on political knowledge. Within the school, those variables most closely associated with exposure to subject-matter--or what might be called time-on-task--had the greatest effect on achievement. These were: number of courses taken in the subject matter, specific topics studied, being assigned and doing homework, and the frequent use of lectures by teachers, studying from textbooks, class discussions, essay writing, doing projects and using the library.

The 1978 Mullis study provides important confirmation of many small scale, quasi-experimental studies of political learning conducted during the 1960's and 1970's. Many of these studies indicated that schools are a major source of political information for young people; that teachers can have some impact on political attitudes and that carefully designed courses can produce large gains in political knowledge.[16]

In summary, research places an important responsibility for achievement in citizenship education squarely in the hands of teachers and principals. For some this research may point to an accountability for student achievement far greater than they had bargained for. Yet, professionally it should be very satisfying to know that one's efforts *can* and *do* influence learning.

Improved School Climate

Finally, principals and schools have an immediate stake in citizenship education because good citizenship education may contribute to the smooth operation of the school. As the Safe Schools study indicates, student misbehavior and violence are problems confronting many schools today.[17] Certainly the causes of school violence are complex and

sometimes bevond the control of school officials. Sometimes, however, student misbehavior stems from an interaction of two factors pertinent to citizenship education--the lack of citizenship competence on the part of students and the absence of school governance strategies which help students responsibly exercise competence as "citizens" of their school.

Imagine, for example, a student who has been severely reprimanded publicly by a teacher for an act which seemingly violates a school rule. On the one hand, the student lacks the competence to formulate an argument in his own defense and communicate it effectively to school officials. On the other hand, the school lacks both a climate conducive to such behavior and a readily accessible mechanism for airing student grievances. The result can be an alienated student susceptible to other experience and peer influences which can lead to truly destructive behavior.

Imagine a similar situation where the student has developed some citizenship competence and is in a school where a premium is placed on due process. The student could have the opportunity to plead innocence and support the plea with relevant information. In the event the student was unable to correct the situation with the teacher, he/she would know how to bring the concern to the principal, confident of a fair hearing. Such a situation maximizes the probability of a resolution to the issue which does not alienate the student or provide negative examples for others.

The development of citizenship competencies in students coupled with an appropriate school climate may contribute to a reduction of tensions and anti-social behavior within schools. The Safe Schools study, for example, points to a firm, fair and consistent system for running a school as a key factor in reducing school violence. Further, the study finds one difference between safe schools and violent schools to be a strong, dedicated principal who served as role model for both students and teachers.[18]

II. WHAT ARE THE BASIC CITIZENSHIP COMPETENCIES?

Citizenship education today is an educational domain characterized by complexity and often frustrating ambiguity.[19] As our society has become more complex, the content of citizenship education has come to include not only the familiar civics, history, and geography, but also such topics as law-related education, global education, social problems, values clarification, moral/citizenship education, and community participation programs.

Goals and objectives in citizenship education today may also vary greatly. Some see the goal of citizenship education to be the development of pro-social behavior across many facets of social life. In contrast, others see the primary goal to be the inculcation of patriotic loyalty and love of country. Yet other educators have stressed the development of thinking skills as the foundation of sound citizenship education.[20]

Finally, pedagogical techniques range from the very traditional read and recite to newer, experimental and inquiry-oriented teaching strategies. In addition, some research indicates that the social-political organization of schools and classroom climate affects political learning.

Given this situation, what are the basic elements of citizenship education today? *What competencies do individuals need in order to discharge their responsibilities and protect their interests as citizens?* To repond to the questions, the Basic Citizenship Competencies Project examined research, theory and practice related to political education and consulted with scholars and community leaders. The goal was to identify a set of citizenship competencies which were useful to a wide variety of individuals interested in citizenship education. By useful we mean a set of competencies that could be used by schools,

principals and teachers to compare instructional materials, clarify goals and assess instruction in citizenship education.

The Meaning of Citizenship Competence

Competence is a familiar idea. In daily life we often make judgments about people's competence. We may say "he is a competent cook" or "she is a competent lawyer." But just what is competence?

Competence implies a capacity or ability equal to some requirement. It means an ability to do something well.[21] To say a person is competent means that he or she is qualified or able to perform in a way that meets a standard or requirement in a given situation. A competent trial lawyer, for example, is able to make cogent arguements and cross-examine witnesses in a courtroom situation.

In the same sense that individuals can be more or less competent in executing tasks associated with an occupational role such as that of lawyer, plumber or secretary, individuals can be more or less competent in coping with tasks of citizenship. Citizenship competence refers to the quality of a person's participation in civic and public life. Citizenship competencies are the capacities an individual requires if they are to behave or use their efforts in such a manner as to produce consequences they intend in their role as citizens. In a democratic society, competence implies citizens will produce consequences which do not violate human rights and which are congruent with democratic principle of liberty and justice.

Citizenship competence has both an individual and societal dimension. The individual dimension refers to the skills, abilities, motivations and knowledge developed by the individual as he or she matures. Thus

competent citizens have the capacity to exercise leadership or communicate effectively when a given situation requires them to do so. Experience indicates some people are more competent as citizens than others.

The societal dimension of citizen competence refers to the extent to which institutional arrangements in a group permit or facilitate the exercise of individual capacities. An individual's competence in any given situation can be frustrated by social forces or conditions beyond their immediate control. Citizens, for example, have little opportunity to exercise their abilities as information processors in situations where institutions withhold information on public issues or provide only misleading information. Experience shows that some forms of governance and social conditions provide greater opportunity for the exercise of individual competencies than others.

Self-Esteem. Self-esteem has an important relationship to the individual dimension of citizenship competence.[22] Self-esteem involves a continuing series of self-other comparisons. For example, "I am smarter than John but not as smart as Mary." Self-esteem is one of the primary ways we locate ourselves in relation to others. One source of heightened self-esteem is the perception that one is good at doing something. Thus, increased self-esteem may result as a person develops citizenship competencies. Being good at the tasks of citizenship may lead to an increasingly positive self-evaluation.

At the same time, a high level of self-esteem can increase the likelihood an individual will develop greater proficiency with citizenship competencies. Research, for instance, clearly indicates that persons with high self-esteem are more likely to participate in social events than persons with low self-esteem.[23] High levels of self-esteem then

appear to facilitate the person's ability to both take part in and learn from their social environment. One implication for citizenship education is that learning experiences in any content area which promote the individual's self-esteem may indirectly contribute to the person's development of citizenship competencies.

Civic Literacy. What some have termed "civic" or "political literacy" also has an important relationship to the development of citizenship competencies by individuals. Civic literacy entails an understanding of the basic values of democratic society, a sound understanding of the operation of informal political processes and formal political institutions, and a continuing awareness of contemporary social issues and problems.

Civic literacy has both an independent and dependent relationship to citizenship competence. That is, at any age level competence in the citizen's role implies an individual will have sufficient knowledge and understanding of the political environment to act effectively. At the same time, competent participation in civic and public life can enhance factual knowledge directly, deepen understanding and motivate the individual to acquire yet additional information.

Seven Basic Citizenship Competencies

What are the basic citizenship competencies? Considerable public attention has been given to the need for a return to "basics" in education. Educators have responded in a variety of ways. Today, there is disagreement and even confusion about the meaning of "basic" in education. By *basic* we mean a set of citizenship competencies that have these characteristics:

-- They are limited in number.

-- They are close to universally relevant in that they are linked to citizenship tasks all individuals--regardless of sex, ethnicity, social class, or other differences--face in daily living.

-- They are generic in that they apply to all of the various domains (family, school, city, state, nation) in which an individual may exercise citizenship.

-- They can be taught continually across grade levels at increasing levels of sophistication and variety.

-- They are of significant value to individuals as they strive to discharge their responsibilities and to preserve their rights and interests as citizens.

--They are of value to the society as it seeks to maintain and improve itself.

We have identified seven citizenship competencies which meet these criteria. Appendix I presents a Summary Chart of the competencies. They are:

1. ACQUIRING AND USING INFORMATION:
   Competence in acquiring and processing information about political situations.

2. ASSESSING INVOLVEMENT:
   Competence in assessing one's involvement and stake in political situations, issues, decisions and policies.

3. MAKING DECISIONS:
   Competence in making thoughtful decisions regarding group governance and problems of citizenship.

4. MAKING JUDGMENTS:
   Competence in developing and using standards such as justice, ethics, morality and practicality to make judgments of people, institutions, policies, and decisions.

5. COMMUNICATING:
   Competence in communicating ideas to other citizens, decision-makers, leaders and officials.

6. COOPERATING:
   Competence in cooperating and working with others in groups and organizations to achieve mutual goals.

7. PROMOTING INTERESTS:
   Competence in working with bureaucratically organized institutions in order to promote and protect one's interests and values.

These seven competencies should be looked upon as a set of flexible tools or guidelines for identifying what constitutes basic preparation for citizenship today. They are not intended to be a curriculum outline in and of themselves. In addition to these competencies, many other goals in citizenship/social studies/social science education can and should be pursued.

The competencies meet the five criteria for basic described above. First, they are limited in number; there are seven. Second, they are universally relevant in that all individuals--white or black, rich or poor, young or old--require some level of proficiency with such competencies if they are to be responsible and effective citizens in the various groups to which they belong. Of course, such factors as great wealth can make it easier and/or less necessary for a person to exercise these competencies. By the same token, racial prejudice or sexism can make it more difficult for some to develop and exercise such competencies. Nevertheless, these competencies are relevant to most individuals under most circumstances.

Third, the competencies are generic. They cut across and apply to all of the various domains in which citizenship is exercised. People face the task, for instance, of making decisions about governance not only as citizens of the United States but also as members of their state, community, school or family. Similarly, effective participation in the life of a family, labor union or city may require the citizen to cooperate with others or make judgments about the decisions of others.

Fourth, the competencies can and should be developed continuously from the earliest stages of life on. These competencies are relevant to elementary school-age children in settings encompassed largely by their interpersonal relations with parents, teachers, principals, peers,

older children and various adults. As children mature, the self develops both emotionally and cognitively, and the relationship of the self to the social environment changes. Hence, as they grow older, students will exercise these competencies in an increasingly wider variety of political settings. These settings will eventually directly involve governmental institutions and citizenship as it relates to state and nation.

Fifth, these competencies embody the types of behaviors that are necessary, if not always sufficient conditions, for preserving one's rights and protecting one's interests as a citizen. For example, while competence in communicating effectively with bureaucrats does not guarantee one can obtain certain benefits, it is hard to imagine being able to obtain anything without some such competence.

Sixth, the distribution of these types of competencies across the population is likely to be of value to the society as a whole. Societies without significant numbers of citizens who can, for example, acquire information, make independent judgments and communicate their opinions to public officials are less likely to be able to maintain democratic traditions and forms of governance than societies with such individuals.

We have reviewed important characteristics of the seven competencies. We will now take a closer look at the components of each one. For each of the seven competencies we identify several *capacities*. These capacities operationalize the competency. The capacities describe behaviors associated with each competency. Specifying capacities provides a way to think about two questions regarding each competency. These are:

1. What experiences will give individuals the chance to acquire and to practice the competency?
2. What behavior will demonstrate the attainment of some level of proficiency with each competency?

The capacities we identify are not intended to be exhaustive. Under certain circumstances, capacities other than those listed here may be involved in the exercise of a competency. In addition, the proficiency an individual may attain with any given competency and its related capacities will be constrained by the level of the individual's cognitive, emotional and perceptual development as well as by external factors in their social environment.

1. ACQUIRING AND USING INFORMATION:
Competence in acquiring and processing information about political situations in one's environment.

Which involves and is demonstrated by the CAPACITY to:

1.1 Use newspapers and magazines to obtain current information and opinions about issues and problems.

1.2 Use books, maps, charts, graphs and other sources.

1.3 Recognize the unique advantages and disadvantages of radio and television as sources of information about issues and problems.

1.4 Identify and acquire information from public and private sources such as government agencies and community groups.

1.5 Obtain information from fellow citizens by asking appropriate questions.

1.6 Evaluate the validity and quality of information.

1.7 Organize and use information collected.

From an early age on all citizens need to acquire and use information about their political environment. This is a task and a responsibility of citizenship from time immemorial. Children, for example, require such competence as they strive to understand why there are often fights on the playground or whether the sixth grade bullies will be hanging around Elm Street on the way to school. Adolescents may need such competence as they look for groups which may share their interests in ecology or as they seek to apply for a work permit. Adults need such competencies when they vote in a referendum on whether to lower property taxes.

Acquiring information means extracting information and data from the environment. Processing information means critically evaluating and organizing and sensibly using information. We may, of course, acquire information simply for the joy of the process or because some topic or problem interests us. In our citizen role, however, competent behavior often requires that "information acquired should be used in some purposive manner leading to greater understanding of a situation, an entity, a problem or ideas about productive solutions."[24]

2. ASSESSING INVOLVEMENT:
Competence in assessing one's involvement and stake in political situations, issues, decisions and policies.

Which Involves and is demonstrated by the CAPACITY to:

2.1 Identify a wide range of implications for an event or condition.

2.2 Identify ways individual actions and beliefs can produce consequences.

2.3 Identify your rights and obligations in a given situation.

Competence with assessing one's involvement in political situations is important in itself. Some people, while walking through a forest see nothing. Others perceive the variety of plants, detect growth and decay, observe signs of birds, mammals and insects, and the evolutionary history in the rocks around them. Citizens who can perceive the richness of the political forest around them are more able to protect and promote their interests than citizens who cannot. Such competence, for example, can help an individual make choices about when in cost benefit terms participation is worth the effort. In addition, this competence is often a necessary condition for proficiency with other competencies such as making judgments, acquiring information, and making decisions.

Assessing one's involvement and stake in political situations means (1) identifying consequences for self and others that may stem from political events and conditions and (2) identifying the implications for others of one's own actions, values, beliefs and feelings.

3. MAKING DECISIONS:
Competence in making thoughtful decisions regarding group governance and problems of citizenship.

Which involves and is Demonstrated by the CAPACITY to:

3.1 Generate realistic alternatives.

3.2 Identify the consequences of alternatives for self and others.

3.3 Determine goals or values involved in a decision.

3.4 Assess the consequences of alternatives based on stated values or goals.

Decision-making is an inescapable part of citizenship for young and old alike. Children require decision-making competence when they must choose a leader for a playground game or decide whether or not to break a school rule. Adolescents need decision-making competence when a problem requires them to choose between loyalty to their peers or to their family. Adults need such competence when they choose local, state and national political leaders.

A decision is a choice among two or more alternatives. Thoughtful decision-making involves a conscious search for alternatives and assessment of the consequences of alternatives in light of the decision-maker's values or preferred goals. Thoughtful decision-makers take account of the impact of their choices on both self and the group. Consideration of both facts and values are involved inthoughtful decision-making.

4. MAKING JUDGMENTS:
Competence in developing and using standards such as justice, ethics morality and practicality to make judgments of people, institutions, policies and decisions.

Which involves and is demonstrated by the CAPACITY to:

4.1 Identify and, if necessary, develop appropriate criteria for making a judgment.

4.2 Apply the criteria to known facts.

4.3 Periodically reassess criteria.

4.4 Recognize that others may apply different criteria to a problem.

Making judgments is one of the most pervasive tasks of citizenship. Competence with making judgments is required when citizens evaluate whether it was a mistake for the President to veto a new law or students determine whether it is unfair that the city prohibits bike riding on city sidewalks. Such competence is also required when citizens must determine what judgment criteria or standards to use in a situation. Does, for example, one evaluate a court's decision to permit a neo-Nazi march in terms of individual liberties, public safety or yet other criteria?

Judgments involve evaluative activity. Judgments are claims about the goodness or badness, the desirability or undesirability, the appropriateness or inappropriateness of given phenomena. To judge a person, institution, policy or decision is to weigh its worth in terms of some set of criteria. Criteria are standards or rules for making judgments; they are assertions about the qualities, characteristics or properties in terms of which a phenomena will be judged. Criteria help individuals evaluate and determine the worth of something.

5. COMMUNICATING:
Competence in communicating ideas to other citizens, decision-makers, leaders and officials.

Which involves and is demonstrated by the CAPACITY to:

5.1 Develop reasons supporting your point of view.

5.2 Present these viewpoints to friends, neighbors, and acquaintances.

5.3 Present these viewpoints in writing to public officials, political leaders and to newspapers and magazines.

5.4 Present these viewpoints at public meetings such as committees, school board meetings, city government sessions, etc.

Competence in communicating one's ideas to others is an essential part of citizenship in a democracy. Children and adolescents, for example, require such competence when they seek to influence the decisions of their peers or when they participate in school or club activities. Adults may need such competence when they try to influence the decision of a public official or when they need to provide information in order to obtain benefits from or deal with a bureaucracy. Competence in communicating one's ideas is relevant to citizens of all ages when they simply wish to make the opinions known regarding an issue or problem.

By communicating we mean passing along or transmitting ideas and information to others in either written or oral form. In one sense formulating an argument and presenting it effectively has always been an important task of citizenship. In another sense, communicating information and ideas to officials and political leaders has become increasingly challenging as the scale of society and the complexity of issues has increased. Today one may need or wish to communicate with officials in a bewildering array of agencies far removed from one's immediate community. Often communicating with such officials involves coping with esoteric jargon and a cobweb of regulations and procedures.

6. COOPERATING:
Competence in cooperating and working with others in groups and organizations to achieve mutual goals.

Which involves and is Demonstrated by the CAPACITY to:

6.1 Clearly present your ideas about group tasks and problems.

6.2 Take various roles in a group.

6.3 Tolerate ambiguity.

6.4 Manage or cope with disagreement within the group.

6.5 Interact with others using democratic principles.

6.6 Work with others of different race, sex, culture, ethnicity, and age ideology.

Much of the citizenship and politics of daily life occurs in relation to the governance of such groups as the family, school, the work place, and voluntary organizations. In addition, participation in the governance of larger groups often occurs through the medium of small groups such as councils, task forces, committees and the like. Competence in cooperating and working with others is required when a student is assigned to a group planning the class picnic. It is also exercised when high school students organize a demonstration in support of a popular teacher who was dismissed. Similarly, such competence is displayed when a group of adults form a committee to distribute petitions required to get a candidate's name on a ballot in a local election.

This competence involves a range of human relations and self-management capacities requisite to relating to others effectively. These capacities have a distinctly affective dimension. They entail attitudes and emotional orientations associated with ways people interact with each other. Competency in this regard, however, does not mean abstract commitment to these ideals but the *application* of these ideals in dealing with others in daily life. This means relating to and making decisions about

others in group settings in non-egocentric, non-ethnocentric and non-stereo-typic ways. Neither teachers nor parents should be very satisfied with students who could recite the Golden Rule and Bill of Rights accurately but who consistently infringe on the rights of those around them.

7. PROMOTING INTERESTS:
Competence in working effectively with bureaucratically organized institutions in order to promote and protect one's interests and values.

Which involves and is demonstrated by a CAPACITY to:

7.1 Recognize your interests and goals in a given situation.

7.2 Identify an appropriate strategy for a given situation.

7.3 Work through organized groups to support your interest.

7.4 Use legal remedies to protect your rights and interests.

7.5 Identify and use the established grievance procedures within a bureaucracy or organization.

A sixth grader signs up for the junior soccer program and talks with her friends about who the best coaches are and how to get picked for their teams. A teenager registers with the Bureau of Motor Vehicles in order to obtain a drivers license and in the same week visits his father's union office to learn how to qualify for college scholarship benefits available from the union. A group of irate homeowners files a complaint with the state insurance commission against a disreputable property insurance company.

Competence in dealing effectively with bureaucratically organized institutions is increasingly a part of citizenship. Citizens acting individually and with others interact with bureaucratically organized institutions in two ways. First, we are consumers or recipients of public services and products of such organizations--particularly of government institutions. Second, citizens increasingly look to various

government agencies to promote their interests, values and causes. Thus, for example, blacks and Indians may look to the Department of Justice to promote their civil rights. Citizens concerned with the quality of the environment attempt to promote their interests through federal, state and local environmental agencies. Similarly, citizen groups often must work with consumer agencies as well as large corporations in order to promote and protect their economic interests.

Citizenship Competence in a Global Age

The competencies we have described are exercised by citizens in an increasingly globalized environment. Although some might wish otherwise, the effects of global interdependence have become inescapable for all citizens. Global interdependence is a condition we must deal with, not some thoery about other people's problems. As Harlan Cleveland points out: "We should recognize that interdependence is not something to be for or against, but a fact to be lived with now and reckoned with in the future."[25]

International relations scholar Chadwick Alger points out that when we observe our own daily life we quickly become aware of how we are linked to a variety of international processes. In a single day the "typical" American citizen, for instance, may be awakened by a Japanese clock radio, drink morning coffee from Brazil, drive to work in a Fiat on tires made of Malayan rubber, buy Saudi Arabian gas, and listen on a German-made radio to a news report about a visiting Iranian trade delegation.[26]

Our contact with the rest of the world is not only linked to our lives as consumers. Money we put in a savings account at a local bank is reinvested in an apartment complex in Chile. A donation in our church collection plate helps to build a hospital in Nigeria, modern

data processing facilities permit scientists in Columbus, Ohio, Geneva, Switzerland and several African cities to quickly exchange data on biological controls for insects harmful to people. A business investment in a local industry helps produce weapons that kill people in distant lands.

In short, global interrelationships that substantially affect the lives of all Americans have gone far beyond traditional diplomatic negotiations and distant military confrontations. Our growing linkages to nations, communities, peoples and events in other parts of the world affects the quality of our air and water; the price of sugar, coffee, and gasoline; the size of our armed forces; the taxes we pay; the levels of employment and inflation and so on. Similarly, how we behave can affect the lives of others in a similar manner. Our decisions and actions involve us in housing policy in Chile, health care in Nigeria, international scientific networks and death in far-off places. They link our lives to the lives of Japanese factory workers, laborers on Malayan rubber plantations and corporate executives in Germany and Italy.

Despite growing attention to the globalization of the human condition, we are only beginning to appreciate the impact of this change on our lives as citizens and on the task of citizenship education. At a minimum it means people now confront the tasks and responsibilities of citizenship in a global or internationalized context. Longshoremen, for example, decide whether or not to load American grain on ships bound for Russia, or a group of business leaders seeks to influence a stste legislature to provide financial inducements to foreign companies to locate in their state, or members of a university committee vote to restrict programs for foreign students, or local church members judge it unfair that church policy toward the world food problem is set by their national headquarters rather than being individually determined in each diocese.

Thus, effectively exercising the seven competencies we have described may increasingly require simultaneous attention to citizenship responsibilities in the context of many territorial units in addition to the nation-state. It may involve for the first time in human history not only an awareness of physically proximate neighbors but a capacity on the part of all citizens to perceive and understand local/global linkages. It may also involve a capacity to see how one's nation, one's community and one's self are linked to nations, communities and people elsewhere in the world--a self-conscious awareness of how we affect each other.

Unfortunately, in large measure citizenship education and "global, international, world-order, foreign affairs" education in the schools have been mutually isolated from one another.[27] In the past, this state of affairs may have been both natural and tolerable. Today it is neither. If the expanding scope and scale of global interdependence is eradicating the boundaries that once separated foreign and domestic affairs, the same forces are eroding the boundaries that once separated education about American society from education about the rest of the world.

Hence, an important part of the challenge of citizenship education today is to recognize that global education and citizenship education are not mutually exclusive but mutually compatible. It is possible to see examples of the major elements of citizenship in both global and domestic areas. Individuals can, for example, have a sense of loyalty and belonging to a global human community as well as to a national political community; they can support international human rights as well as domestic civil rights; they face tasks like making, judging and influencing decisions in relation to both domestic and global issues.

* * *

Up to this point we have:

- identified important reasons for principals to be interested in promoting citizenship competencies, and
- described a typology of seven citizenship competencies which can be used to clarify goals, make assessments and plan programs in citizenship education.

In the remaining sections of this Guide we consider how principals can exert leadership to promote basic citizenship competency learning in their schools. First, we consider the principal's role as model citizen.

III. CITIZENSHIP COMPETENCY BY EXAMPLE AND PRECEPT: PRINCIPALS AS MODEL CITIZENS

Principals are highly visible persons in their schools. Their actions are often observed and commented upon by members of the school community. Research has documented the importance of modeling in the social learning process.[28] For this reason, principals need to be cognizant of the fact that they may be modeling behavior for others.[29] As models they may teach relevant lessons about citizenship to students, teachers, and others through their deliberate and non-conscious actions.

The school can be likened to a community. Like a community, it is comprised of citizens. Just as the President is "first citizen" of the nation, the principal may be thought of as "first citizen" of the school. This position carries with it citizenship responsibility which can be fully met only if those who relate to the principal are able to perceive him/her demonstrating good citizenship behavior.

Demonstrating or modeling good citizenship behavior is representing for students that which is abstractly described and presented to them as good or ideal. It can help learners clarify their perceptions about the abstract presentation of ideas about citizenship. As students develop socially and emotionally, they constantly sort out their feelings by comparing themselves with and modeling the behavior of important others. Their perceptions are an important facet in their social learning. Along with cognitive processes, visual, auditory, tactile, and the kinesthetic senses all enhance the teaching-learning process. Modeling desirable behavior makes its contribution in that light.[30]

Principals have the opportunity to bring citizenship education to life through their actions. They can demonstrate the seven basic citizenship competencies and the value of competent behavior.

Considering the "model citizen" role, principals might ask: How competent am I as a citizen in my school and school community? The seven basic citizenship competencies can be used as a guide to thinking about one's behavior as a "model citizen."

Acquiring Information

Principals need and should possess a great deal of knowledge about people, relationships, activities, conditions, feelings, and incipient problems in the school and its environment. Competencies in acquiring and processing information in each of these instances is essential. Do you model competent behavior?

1. *Do you project genuine interest in and concern for each member of the school community including students, teachers, staff, parents and lay citizens in general?*

2. *Do you have well developed and clearly understood downward, upward, and horizontal communication channels in your school?* Relying upon the "rumor mill" as a basic source of information is fraught with danger and models incompetent behavior. Students and staff alike are quickly aware of the principal who does not know what is going on in his or her own school.

Assessing Involvement

In any complex organization, competent members of the group are able to assess their stake in the groups political life. Do you model competent behavior?

1. *Do you try to identify the implications of an event or problem for many groups within your school?*

2. *Do you consider the consequences of your actions and beliefs on a variety of groups and issues in the school?*

Making Decisions

Principals may make important decisions daily. Since these decisions impact the lives of individuals, families, and various groups, it is critical that they result from thoughtful and informed

consideration. A high level of competence in decision-making is an important part of an effective principal's repertoire.

1. *Do you base decisions on the best information available and temper responses in light of the needs and interests of those involved?*

2. *Do you provide the opportunity for others in the school to be a part of planning, decision and implementation processes?*

Making Judgments

Most principals apply standards and make judgments periodically in carrying out their duties. Their judgments of persons, institutions, policies and decisions encountered in political situations are weighed heavily in those communities. It is essential that principals display competence in making such judgments.

1. *Do you make your criteria for judgments explicit to students and staff?*

2. *Do you apply criteria equally and fairly to all students and staff regardless of race, culture, sex or ethnicity?*

3. *Do you periodically reassess your criteria for making judgments in light of changing conditions?*

Communicating

Principals must constantly communicate with students and staff within the school and with parent leaders, school board members, government officials and many others outside the school.

1. *Do you take advantage of opportunities to communicate information about the school to the community in meetings, hearings, and other public arenas?*

2. *Do you communicate information about school policies, rules and conditions regularly, clearly and honestly to your own students and staff?*

Cooperating

Cooperation is one of the most desired and highest forms of human behavior, but it gives us great difficulty. Whether in the school or community, the principal joining with others to work for the achievement of mutually determined goals is a fine example of modeling competent citizenship behavior.

1. *Do you guide your interaction with students, staff and parents by democratic principles? Specifically:*

    1.1 *Do you take every opportunity to maximize equality of educational opportunity for all students, regardless of racial identification or whatever exceptionalities might be associated with them?*

    1.2 *Do you respect the rights of all under your jurisdiction?*

2. *Do you share authority and responsibility by delegating tasks to those who have the ability and desire to do them well?*

Promoting and Protecting Interests

Much of the principal's behavior in promoting and protecting the school's interests is not readily observable by students and in some cases by faculty. Principals exercise this competence in school-based meetings, in informal negotiations and the like. However, principals can take action with regard to this competency by creating a school environment which allows students and staff to act in ways which protect and promote their interests as members of the school organization. We discuss this behavior in detail in the next section. Here we can simply ask:

1. *Do you have clearly established grievance procedures which allow students and staff to responsibly air their gripes?*

2. *Do you allow people to promote their interests and ideas by supporting new programs which hold the potential for improving programs and processes which are beginning to sag under the weight of irrelevance?*

* * *

In summary, principals can promote citizenship competency learning by students by consciously modeling the seven competencies. This would not be a distraction from the principal's leadership responsibilities. From the principal's role as "model citizen" the competencies may be seen as rational processes designed to gain and use information, to help formulate well-reasoned alternative courses of action and to help select and promote those courses of action.

Thus, we have said that principals have an opportunity to promote citizenship education through modeling behavior. Some might suggest this to be one of the most powerful courses in the curriculum--it is an important role of principals.

IV. OPPORTUNITIES FOR IMPROVING CITIZENSHIP EDUCATION

As building leaders principals have a responsibility for promoting good citizenship education in their schools. Indeed, if the potential of citizenship education is to be fully realized, principals need to play a strong, facilitative role in getting others to see its value, to understand how to build it into the curriculum, and to make it a meaningful part of school life.

In this section we consider two questions. First, what opportunities are there for principals to facilitate improved citizenship education in their schools? Second, what resources are available to help principals take advantage of available opportunities?

Research and theory on political learning point to three dimensions of the school as offering natural opportunities for initiatives in citizenship education. These are: (1) the curriculum and classroom instruction, (2) the social organization of the school and (3) relations with the community. Activities related to each of these areas can contribute to the development of student's citizenship competencies. Let us consider specific actions principals might undertake in each area.

Curriculum and Instruction

The basic mission of the school is instruction. Presently formal instruction in citizenship education is generally concentrated within the social studies area of the curriculum. In the primary grades local communities and urban life are studied, and in the intermediate grades the Constitution, national government and United States history are covered. At the junior/ middle and senior high level formal courses directly focused on citizenship education appear. These include Civics (grades 7, 8 or 9), State and

Local Government/History (appears from grades 7 through 12), History (grade 10 or 11), U.S. Government (grade 12), and Senior Problems or Problems of Democracy courses (grade 12).[31]

Recent research indicates that both instructional materials, particularly textbooks, and teaching style can affect student knowledge and attitude outcomes in citizenship. Conventional textbooks are important because they continue to be the dominant instructional tool used by teachers. According to one estimate, 75 percent of a student's classroom time and 90 percent of homework time is spent with textbook materials.[32]

The textbook's central role is documented by a series of national studies of science, mathematics and social studies education recently commissioned by the National Science Foundation.[33] Findings for social studies show that teachers rely on textbooks as *the* central instrument of instruction and believe in the text as the source of knowledge in social studies education.* And, over 50 percent of the teachers surveyed would prefer to continue using books they are familiar with. Few teachers studied were aware of newer, alternative instructional materials although about one quarter reported that out-of-date teaching materials were a major problem.[35]

The Mullis research with NAEP data (p. 8) and other studies indicate that the use of textbooks is most strongly related to student gains in political knowledge. Mullis found, for example, that a variable based on the teacher's use of textbooks and lectures to be good predictors of student achievement in mathematics and political knowledge.[36]

---

*These findings were mirrored in science education where it was found "the science curriculum exists as the facts and concepts that are traditionally packaged in textbooks."[34]

Some evidence also indicates that classroom climate does have an effect on student citizenship outcomes--especially attitudes. Classroom climate means the interaction of the teacher with the curriculum--how teaching is carried out. "Open" classroom climates have been found to foster a range of positive political attitudes, and a "closed" climate is associated with negative attitudes.[37] Mullis, for example, found the use of class discussion and class projects to be good predictors of students' attitude achievement. In a study of citizenship education practices in ten countries including the United States, other researchers found:

> On the whole, the results showed specific classroom practices were less important than what is often called "classroom climate"; more knowledgeable, less authoritarian and more interested students came from schools where they were encouraged to have free discussion and to express their opinion in class. But students who reported having frequent political discussions with teachers were not necessarily more democratic in their attitudes.[38]

Such results notwithstanding, the NSF studies indicate that the prevalent mode of instruction continues to be large group, teacher-controlled recitation and lecture. Despite recent professional writing about learning through participation, experience-based and "inquiry-teaching" methods appear to be rare.[39]

Implications for Leadership. Curriculum and instruction offer an important set of opportunities for principals to exercise leadership for good citizenship education. Classroom instruction can be organized to facilitate the development of basic citizenship competencies and it can develop students' political literacy. Specifically,

1. *Principals should insure that the teaching staff devotes sufficient time each day for formal instruction in citizenship/social studies education.*

2. *Principals can encourage the teaching staff to evaluate current instructional materials and/or materials being considered for adoption in terms of (1) the extent to which they promote basic citizenship competency learning and (2) their overall educational quality.*

Given the demonstrated significance of textbooks and other instructional materials these are critically important tasks. As for task (1), Appendix 2 contains a Competency Checklist which can be used by teachers and staff to assess instructional materials in terms of the seven basic competencies described in Section II. The Checklist may be used by teachers working individually or by committees.

As for task (2), the Social Science Education Consortium has available a number of curriculum analysis systems for assessing the overall quality of instructional materials. And the National Council for the Social Studies has guidelines for assessing materials in terms of key social studies objectives. Appendix 3 lists these materials.

3. *Principals can encourage and facilitate in-service sessions which expose the teaching staff to new ideas and materials in citizenship/social studies education.*

In recent years many good, new instructional materials in citizenship/social studies education have been developed. Appendix 4 contains references to publications and organizations which can help principals and teachers keep up to date in citizenship education. In this regard, principals can encourage teachers to enrich their use of the textbook with many of the good, new supplementary materials now available.

4. *Principals can encourage teachers to assess their own instructional techniques and classroom climate in terms of their contribution to citizenship education.*

The Competence Checklist in Appendix 2 can also be used by teachers as a professional self-assessment device for this purpose.

School Climate

The social organization and climate of the school provides a second opportunity for principals to influence citizenship education.

The social organization and climate of the school provides a second opportunity for principals to influence citizenship education. Schools are arenas where rules are made, goals are set and resources are distributed. Administrators, teachers and students are all citizens within the school context. This notion is, of course, reinforced by recent court decisions which have recognized the constitutional rights of students. Important developments have occurred in such areas as freedom of speech, freedom of the press, personal appearance, freedom from racial and sexual discrimination, and due process.[40] In essence, as the Supreme Court put it in the *Tinker* case, "students in school as well as out of school are 'persons' under our Constitution. They are possessed of fundamental rights which the state must respect."[41]

At the same time students' legal rights have been expanding, political scientists have been examining what is termed the "political climate" of schools. This research indicates that the social organization of schools is related to student discontent and the socio-political attitudes students develop.[42] For example, students' participation in extracurricular activities and school governance is related positively to their political attitudes.[43] Similarly, the organization and governance structure of schools is related to attitude outcomes. "More participant and less authoritarian climates are linked to more positive political attitudes and behavior of students."[44] Thus, both legal developments and social science research point to a connection between schooling and student's citizenship competence.

Implications for Leadership. As chief administrative officer of the school, the principal is in large part responsible for the school's management and for establishing the climate of the school.

1. *At a minimum, all principals have a responsibility to create a school climate characterized by equitable rules, accessible grievance procedures for students and opportunities for student input in governance issues which directly affect them.*

Appendix 5 contains three checklists which can be used to assess the school climate from the perspective of students and teachers. In addition, a Self-Assessment Checklist is included for use by principals.

These Checklists can be used in a variety of ways. The Checklists can be helpful as devices to identify points of tension and conflict in the school. For example, if student discipline is a problem area and policy changes are contemplated, the Checklists may provide valuable background information. They also may be of value as needs assessment or planning instruments for in-service activities. Information gained from the Checklists may be helpful in developing policy that can help establish a school climate favorable to student development of citizenship competencies.

2. *Some principals may wish to go further and institute participatory management procedures which more directly involve students and staff in school governance.*

Some current views of school management suggest that principals can develop "collegial" authority relations in which organizational authority would be distributed among members of the school based upon "demonstrated knowledge or competence."[45] Such strategies may have important payoffs. in terms of giving students non-classroom opportunities to develop and sharpen their citizenship competencies.

For example, the principal could implement a participative conflict resolution process to mediate disputes which arise between students. Such a process would have the conflicting parties share their differences

in a highly structured format which guarantees each party the chance to express his/her perceptions and feelings. The students involved in the dispute then agree to terms they set, sign a contract which states these terms, and thereby terminate the conflict. If such a plan was adopted by a school, students could have opportunities to develop such competencies as acquiring information, making judgments, making decisions, communicating, and cooperating in very real situations.

However, it should be noted that involving students significantly in school governance is often a difficult and time-consuming process. Such a step requires the full commitment and support of the school staff as well as community support. Appendix 6 contains references on this topic for principals who wish to pursue the matter further.

Linking School and Community

Principals can also promote better citizenship education in their schools by helping their staff use resources available in the local community more effectively. This is important for two reasons. First, research shows that political learning is a society-wide process and that, in addition to the schools, the community plays an important role in the process of developing competent citizens.[46] Key elements of the community such as business and labor, voluntary organizations, religious organizations and the family are settings where individuals confront daily the tasks and problems of citizenship. They are also sources of the knowledge, skills, attitudes and experiences we acquire as citizens.

For example, many voluntary organizations and community groups such as the YMCA, scouting programs, Lions Club, Kiwanis and the like have their own educational programs--some directly related to the citizenship education of youth. The 4-H club organizations have an exemplary record

in this regard. Participation in a range of voluntary group activities can provide valuable opportunities for youth to sharpen citizenship competencies--particularly those related to advocacy and participation.[47]

At this point socialization research has yet to precisely sort out the relationships and interactive effects of citizenship education in school and non-school settings.[48] However, the society-wide nature of citizenship clearly means principals and teachers should be aware of the non-school dimension of the process as they plan school related programs.

A second reason for helping the teaching staff draw upon the local community is that every community--whether large or small, rich or poor, urban or suburban--is a potentially rich "talent bank" for citizenship education programming in the school. Individuals in academia, business, the professions and the voluntary sector as well as homemakers are citizens who confront daily the tasks of citizenship. In their role as adult citizens members of the community can serve as resource people for the schools by speaking to classes, consulting with teachers on the design of new programs, taking part in PTO or PTA programs, taking part in in-service presentations for teachers and the like.

For example, a local banker could discuss the federal government's role in banking with a high school economics or government class. A homemaker with experience as newspaper reporter could help sixth-grade students interview members of city council to find out what decisions they made in the last year that directly affected children in the community. Or a parent who works for the state government could help plan an in-service session for staff on "local resources for citizenship education."

A school's citizenship education programming can be greatly enhanced by using the local community as a resource for school-based citizenship education. There are at least three ways principals can help their

schools relate effectively to the community for strengthening citizenship education. Appendix 7 contains a checklist that can help principals assess the extent to which they are dealing effectively with the community along these three dimensions. Specifically,

1. *Principals can help the staff to draw upon the community as a "talent bank" for citizenship education programming.*

To facilitate the use of community members as citizenship education resources, the principal could help the school's instructional staff develop a speakers bureau or encourage the staff to use an existing speakers bureau. Individuals from the school and community expert in topics relevant to citizenship competence and willing to speak to classes and assemblies could be identified and cataloged. When teachers need a speaker, they would check the file and contact an individual identified as expert on the topic.

Principals could also encourage the development of an issues forum. The school staff would identify issues which are of current importance, particularly to students, and organize forums during which various views on the issue would be shared. Individuals from the school and community who could represent a variety of views would be identified and recruited to participate in the forum. The speakers' bureau discussed above could be used to identify participants.

While the idea of using local resources in this manner is not new, it is often not been systematically exploited by schools for the purpose of improving school-based citizenship education. As a result, for most schools, the community remains a virtually untapped resource for educators interested in promoting better citizenship education.

2. *Principals can help the staff to use the community as a "laboratory" where students can become involved in activities related to developing and practicing citizenship competencies.*

Concerned with the isolation of students from citizenship experiences and "the real world," some civic educators have been developing programs

to take advantage of the community as a learning laboratory. Many of these programs are targeted at the secondary school level and involve students in such activities as making surveys on community needs and problems; rendering volunteer service to social agencies; participating in electoral politics, community organizations, and internships with adults in business, local government and the professions.

School staff members, for example, could be encouraged to meet with representatives from local governmental agencies, organizations and students to develop projects that would involve students in service to their fellow citizens. Such projects might include work in hospitals, work with senior citizens, community clean-up campaigns, distribution of information regarding public health, and work with younger children.

Using the community as a laboratory should not be seen as a substitute for study and reflection. Rather, its aim is to help insure that instruction will be directed toward social realities and the building of basic citizenship competencies. The National Commission of Resources for Youth is a national clearinghouse for youth involvement and community involvement projects. Its book, New Roles for Youth in the School and the Community, offers many illustrations of what schools have done in this regard. Appendix 8 at the end of this Guide contains a short bibliography and list of organizations relevant to citizenship education activities which involve students in the community.

3. *Principals can initiate actions designed to increase the capacity of interested citizens to work constructively with schools on citizenship education programs.*

To many persons, it appears that schools and schooling are only of real interest to education professionals and to the young children who are traditionally seen as clients of the schools. In many localities relations between citizens and parents on the one hand, and schools and

and school systems on the other, have become cool or strained. And strong collaborative tie between business and the schools is yet to be achieved in most instances.

Several steps can be taken to remedy this situation. A Community Advisory Council (CAC) can be established to serve as the basic link between the school and community. Comprised of persons who represent the several sub-publics in the community, the CAC could identify citizenship problems and opportunities for the principal, staff and students to consider. The basic function of this group would be continual agenda building of citizenship problems and opportunities for both the school and community thereby forging a substantive link for collaborative action.

Principals can also initiate a form of parent effectiveness training. In such a program representatives of the school staff and parent groups would be convened to develop activities to inform parents about the school's citizenship program, suggest activities which parents could carry on in the home to reinforce the development of citizenship competence, recruit parents to participate in the school's citizenship education program, and receive feedback on the citizenship program.

A third activity would be to convene meetings of school representatives with individuals from community institutions, organizations and groups. The meeting could inform community members about the school's program and solicit their support and assistance. Groups which should be contacted could include: parents' groups (Parent-Teacher Organizations, advisory councils and boosters clubs), service organizations (e.g. Kiwanis, Junior League, League of Women Voters, local N.O.W. chapters, Urban League, Grange, NAACP, Rotary, Sertoma), public agencies (e.g., local and regional elected bodies, police, fire department, social service agencies, public

works, hospitals, community colleges, colleges), youth organizations (e.g. Scouts, youth athletic groups, 4-H, FFA, Junior Achievement) and religious groups.

Finally, the school could sponsor a job fair where state and local agencies, private business, post-secondary institutions, and the military could be called upon to provide students with information about a diversity of careers. Students should be included along with school staff members and community representatives on committees to plan such an activity. The planning of an involvement in such an activity would provide students with evidence of the value of and need for cooperation as well as provide them with opportunities to apply such competencies as communicating, cooperating, promoting interests, acquiring information and decision-making.

* * *

Principals must be concerned about the school as a "citizen" of the larger community of which it is a part. The principal needs to provide leadership in the school's relations with the community. The suggestions made here for more effectively linking school and community can strengthen not only citizenship education but also the principal's overall performance as an educational administrator.

V. LEADERSHIP IN PROMOTING CITIZENSHIP EDUCATION

We subtitled this document *A Guide for Effective Leadership*. This is because leadership is the sine qua non of the principal's role.

Poll results from those who have given careful thought to the concept of leadership would not likely produce a single, agreed upon definition of "leadership." The notion has an elusive quality. For our purposes leadership is "that behavior of an individual which initiates a new structure in interaction with a social system; it initiates changes in the goals, objectives, configurations, procedures, inputs, processes, and ultimately the outputs of social systems."[49]

Thus leadership is taking action for change. Earlier we presented examples of leadership actions principals might take to promote citizenship education (see Sections III and IV). For example, creating a school climate characterized by equitable rules, accessible grievance procedures for students and opportunities for student input in governance issues which affect them. This kind of action clearly will lead to changes in goals, objectives, configurations, procedures, inputs, processes, and ultimately the output of many schools. However, leadership involves more than just taking action.

We alluded to *effective* leadership in our subtitle. Effective leadership involves initiating action which results in desired changes, that is, changes that meet expectations and goals. The taxonomy below nicely illustrates the difference between action for action's sake and effective leadership. The four stages of leadership are:

1. Attempted leadership: acts that include expression of an intention to initiate a new structure for dealing with a problematic state of a social system.

2. Accepted leadership: acts that are mutually acknowledged as a tentative solution to a problematic state of a social system.

3. Implemented leadership: acts that have initiated a new structure in a social system.

4. Effective leadership: acts that have initiated a new structure and have met the expectations for resolving a problematic state of the social system.[50]

This Guide documents that there is a pressing need for principals to exercise effective leadership in citizenship education in their schools. In this section we present guidelines for exercising effective leadership. These are: defining the problem, defining educational purpose, introducing, programming, supporting, motivating, and evaluating.

Defining the Problem

Principals who want to improve citizenship education in their schools must help teachers, students, and the community recognize that a problem exists. By tradition and policy, citizenship education is a responsibility of elementary and secondary schools, but research clearly shows that the level of citizenship competence in this country is disturbingly low and continues to decline. This is a real problem.

The research we have cited and the information in this Guide is a good starting place to help others become aware of a problem that needs to be addressed. Too often leaders assume that those who work for and with them recognize the same problems that they do. This simply is not the case. Leaders must help bring into focus the problems that require the attention of organizational members.[51] Moreover, some procedure for systematically examining the problem might be used in order to tease out and share relevant information.

We suggest two such procedures that we have used with a great deal of success in several school systems, schools, and with varying audiences. The procedures are the Nominal Group Technique and the Decision Seminar.

The Nominal Group Technique (NGT)[52]. NGT is a process model that structures small group meetings so that the judgments and insights of individuals can be effectively and efficiently pooled. It is particularly useful for developing group consensus regarding the identification of problems, exploring solutions, and establishing priorities.

NGT involves a five step process. In *step one*, the principal determines and poses the question the group will work to answer. In *step two*, each member of the group silently writes down their own responses to the question presented to the group. In this case the initial question might be, what actions can be taken by the school to cope with a reduction in the budget? *Step three* involves a round-robin presentation of ideas, with each group member orally presenting one idea per round. This continues until all ideas have been expressed. Each idea is recorded on a flip-chart. *Step four* calls for the serial discussion of each idea. Each idea is read aloud and group members may comment upon them but arguments are unnecessary. Finally, in *step five*, each member ranks the items in order of importance. The group's votes are collected and tallied, and the voting patterns are discussed. As noted above, NGT provides a highly structured process model with the principal in control by virtue of the question posed to gaining the group's judgments and insights for sound decision-making.

The Decision Seminar.[53] The Decision Seminar is a broader gauged tool which provides an excellent model for problem-solving and planning.

The decision-seminar incorporates a set of procedures for enabling a group of experts or other participants to work on specific problems in a contextual, multi-method and future-oriented fashion. It provides a structure which facilitates: the identification of potential problem areas; the description of the problem's historical, political, social, and environmental context; the analysis and selection of feasible alternatives; and the development and evaluation of the means for implementation.

There are several techniques and concepts available in the Decision-Seminar model. A policy planning or problem solving group may utilize all or part of these structures to facilitiate their collection and analysis of data relevant to a given problem. As a result they can enhance the feasibility and impact of the action alternatives they ultimately select.

One phase of the model is useful to mention here. These are a set of five questions designed to focus problem-solvers' attention on major issues related to any problem. The questions are:

1. Goal Clarification:
   What future states do we want to realize with regard to the problem? What are our goals?

2. Trend Description:
   What is the status of the problem over time? Have things been getting better or worse?

3. Analysis of Conditions:
   What issues, facts, and conditions affect the problem?

4. Projection of Developments:
   If current practices continue what will happen to the problem? Will things get better or worse?

5. Invention, Selection and Evaluation of Alternatives:
   What strategies, approaches and decisions are likely to correct, improve or in some way alleviate the problem?

The Nominal Group Technique and Decision Seminar can be useful tools for involving staff and faculty in systematically examining problems in citizenship education.

Defining Educational Purpose

Schools exist for particular purposes. A basic purpose of our schools is socialization. Sociologists define socialization as the transference of various behavioral norms from generation to generation and the preparation of persons to fit into the social system. In broad terms socialization is the transmission of the culture. Children gain a general conception of competence through the socialization process. They develop many skills to help them cope with and participate in various aspects of modern society. The development of a degree of competence in working through and acting within the political system ought to be a part of general development which is a main outcome of the socialization process.[54]

Helping teachers, students, and community members to understand these purposes and work in a way that their efforts are contributive to this end is a major leadership task of principals. Harlow asserts that administrators are the servants of organizational purpose.[55] A key mission of the public schools has always been to develop citizenship competence in our youth. If the notion is to take hold and become operative in our schools then principals must be convinced and must articulate it as an educational purpose. Moreover, principals must help teachers understand, accept, and implement citizenship education as a purpose. Within the leadership arena of principals, nothing stands out with greater clarity as a leadership function than that of seeing to it that the purposes of the school are accurately and explicitly defined and effectively held up for view by teachers and parents.

Program Implementation

Once awareness of the challenge of citizenship education is developed and the school's basic goals regarding citizenship education are clarified, effective leadership implies at least five steps related to actually implementing changes in the school's citizenship education program. These are: introducing, programming, supporting, motivating and evaluating.

Introducing. Just as the faculty members must be helped to understand and relate to longstanding school purposes, the same is true when new purposes and procedures are introduced. Introducing is an appropriate term because among its definitions is "to lead to or make known by a formal act." (Webster's Seventh New Collegiate Dictionary, 1971.)

The purposes of citizenship education must be defined and agreement reached on goals and pursuit of goal attainment in each school. Principals, as executive heads of schools, are the logical persons to introduce citizenship education to school and community persons and help them think through and understand its value. The purposes of citizenship education should be made explicit with attendant goals and objectives fully discussed and agreed to so that concerted effort can be made by teachers to meet the new instructional requirements. Building congruent expectations, providing complete information, providing opportunity for candid discussion, building consensus for support, and insuring that all relevant groups have been fully apprised of the proposed change are inherent features of introducing.

Programming. Good instructional materials are needed to conduct effective programs in citizenship education. Principals should make certain that all requisite materials are available so that teachers

can devote their time to program and instructional development. Programming people and resources so that they are properly juxtaposed for goal attainment is an administrative responsibility, and principals usually need to make extraordinary effort to meet this responsibility especially when change is being introduced into their schools. Budgets, people, timelines, and materials placed in proper relationship for goal achievement is the primary consideration in programming.

Supporting. The excitement of change runs down and people need support. Change requires a great deal of psychic energy which must be replenished. When introducing and/or requiring change, principals must assume a posture of support and help teachers maintain the level of psychic energy they need to be creative and functional.

Purpose defining, goal clarification, encouragement during difficult periods, highlighting intermediate successes, reminding of benefits of goal achievement, and periodic progress reports are hallmarks of supportive behavior.

Motivating. Helping people feel a sense of satisfaction as they work toward goals is an aspect of motivation. But this is not enough. People must be convinced that they have the ability to meet the new task demands of change. Moreover, they must subscribe to and accept as worthwhile the new goals. Convincing people that they are capable of meeting new task demands and to accept new goals as desirable end-states is the key to motiviating people to change. Feeling that goal achievement is both an intrinsic and extrinsic desirable outcome leads to a feeling of satisfaction about one's work and also provides an opportunity to consider elevated or new goal aspirations which lead to increased performance.

If the foregoing appears to be complex, it's simply because organizational life is complex and there are no easy answers to questions of motivation. We know, however, that performance can be changed by influencing either ability or motivation. Ability can be improved through training.

Evaluating. The merit of any action or activity should be determined in a systematic way. This sytematic way or process of determining merit is what we mean by evaluating. A major concern in evaluating is determing if there is a discrepancy between what you planned to do and what you are actually doing. No change should be undertaken or long permitted without assessment of its strengths and weaknesses and other information mid-course and other corrections.

* * *

In summary, we have posited that leadership is taking action for change. All actions taken for change do not achieve the desired results; therefore, principals need to be mindful that there is a difference between attempted leadership, accepted leadership, implemented leadership, and effective leadership.

To be effective leaders and provide effective leadership, we have suggested that principals must be able to define problems, define educational purpose, introduce change requirements, program for change, support personnel during time of change, motivate people to continue the change effort, and evaluate the change results.

While this document does not allow us room to provide an exhaustive treatment of each of these leadership initiatives, we have highlighted them indicating why the principal needs to take

each action. Together they represent the kind of actions needed to insure that attempted leadership becomes effective leadership.

Citizenship competence is a necessary prerequisite to the maintenance of our democratic social order, principals have a critical leadership responsibility to help insure that their schools assist our youth in gaining this competence.

FOOTNOTES

[1]Quoted in Byron G. Massialas, Education and the Political System (Reading, Mass.: Addison-Wesley Publishing Company, 1969), p. 2

[2]Karen Dawson, "Political Education--A Challenge," News for Teachers of Political Science, (No. 20, Winter, 1979), p. 4.

[3]Lee H. Ehman, Indiana University, "The Function of the School in the Political Socialization Processes: American Findings," Paper prepared for the International Conference on Political Socialization and Political Education in Tutzing, West Germany, October 10-14, 1977, p. 15.

[4]Thomas R. Dye and L. Harmon Zeigler, The Irony of Democracy, (North Scituate, Mass.: Duxbury Press, 1975), pp. 196-199. The evidence on this point is considerable; for example, see also Alfred Hero, "Public Reactions to Government Policy," in J.P. Robinson, et.al., (Eds.) Measures of Political Attitudes, (Ann Arbor, Michigan: Institute for Social Research, 1967), pp. 23-79; John P. Robinson, Public Information About World Affairs, (Ann Arbor, Michigan: Institute for Social Research, 1967); Fred I. Greenstein, The American Party System and the American People, (Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1970), pp. 12-13; Philip E. Converse, "The Nature of Belief Systems in Mass Publics," in David E. Apter (Ed.), Ideology and Discontent, (New York: Free Press, 1964) and Angus Campbell, et.al., The American Voter (New York: John Wiley, 1960).

[5]Changes in Political Knowledge and Attitudes, 1969-1976: Selected Results from the Second National Assessments of Citizenship and Social Studies (Denver, Colo.: National Assessment of Educational Progress, 1978). See also, Howard Mehlinger, "The NAEP Report on Changes in Political Knowledge and Attitudes, 1969-1976," Phi Delta Kappan, June, 1978, pp. 676-678.

[6]The countries in the study were Federal Republic of Germany, Finland, Ireland, Israel, Italy, the Netherlands, New Zealand, Sweden and the U.S. See, Judith V. Torney, "The International Attitudes and Knowledge of Adolescents in Nine Countries: The IEA Civic Education Survey," International Journal of Political Education, September, 1977, pp. 3-20; See also Judith V. Torney, A.N. Oppenheim and Russell F. Farnen, Civic Education in Ten Countries (New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1975).

[7]Dye and Zeigler, Irony of Democracy, pp. 147-167; John J. Patrick, "Improving Political Learning in Secondary Schools," (Paper presented at the 68th meeting of the American Political Science Association, Washington, D.C., September, 1972), p. 16.

[8]Roberta S. Sigel, "Students' Comprehension of Democracy and Its Application to Conflict Situations" (Paper prepared for the International Conference on Political Socialization, Tutzing, Federal Republic of Germany, October 10-14, 1977).

[9]Thomas R. Dye and L. Harmon Zeigler, The Irony of Democracy, (Belmont, California: Wadsworth Publishing Company, 1970), p. 170.

[10] Howard Mehlinger, "The NAEP Report," p. 677. Quoting figures from The New York Times, June 12, 1977, p. 55.

[11] Lee F. Anderson, Richard C. Remy and Richard C. Snyder, "Improving Political Education in Elementary Schools: Challenges and Opportunities," a position paper of the Task Force on Elementary Education of the APSA Committee on Pre-Collegiate Education, prepared for the National Science Foundation, 1972.

[12] James S. Coleman, et.al., Equality of Educational Opportunity, U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, Office of Education (Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1966).

[13] For example, Christopher Jencks and M.D. Brown, "Effects of High Schools on Their Students," Harvard Educational Review, 45 (August, 1975), pp. 273-324; A.C. Purves, Literature Education in Ten Countries, International Studies in Evaluation II (New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1973).

[14] Ina V.S. Mullis, "Effects of Home and School on Learning Mathematics and Political Knowledge and Attitudes," (Ph.D. Dissertation, University of Colorado, 1978).

[15] Ina V.S. Mullis, "Effects of Home and School on Learning Mathematics, Political Knowledge and Political Attitudes," Paper published by National Assessment of Educational Progress, Denver, Colorado; April, 1974, p. 33. Emphasis added.

[16] This research is summarized in Lee Ehman, "The Function of the School in the Political Socialization Process," (Paper prepared for the International Conference on Political Socialization, Tutzing, Federal Republic of Germany, October 10-14, 1977).

[17] Violent Schools--Safe Schools, The Safe School Study Report to the Congress, Vol. 1, National Institute of Education, U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, Washington, D.C. 20208, Jan. 1978.

[18] Violent Schools--Safe Schools, p. 169

[19] For an overview of the field see, LeAnn Meyer, "The Citizenship Education Issue: Problems and Programs," report #123, Education Commission of the States, February, 1979.

[20] John J. Patrick, "Political Socialization and Political Education in Schools" in Stanley Renshon(ed.) Handbook of Political Socialization Research (New York: The Free Press, 1977), p. 196.

[21] For a discussion of competence see Fred M. Newmann, Education for Citizen Action (Berkeley, California: McCutchan Publishing Corporation, 1975), pp. 12-40, and Robert W. White, "Motivation Reconsidered: The Concept of Competence," Psychological Review, 66, 1959, pp. 297-333.

[22] Robert C. Ziller, The Social Self (New York: Pergamon Press, Inc., 1973), pp. 608.

[23] Ibid., p. 7

[24]Barbara J. Winston and Charlotte C. Anderson, "Skill Development in Elementary Social Studies: A New Perspective," published by ERIC/ChESS and the Social Science Education Consortium, 1977, pp. 7-8.

[25]Harlan Cleveland, "Our Coming Foreign-Policy Crisis," Saturday Review (September 6, 1975).

[26]Chadwick F. Alger, "Increasing Opportunities for Effective and Responsible Transnational Participation," Mershon Center Quarterly Report, 1:4 (Summer, 1976), p. 2.

[27]M. Eugene Gilliom and Richard C. Remy, "Needed: A New Approach to Global Education," Social Education, Vol. 42:6 (October, 1978), pp. 499-503.

[28]See, for example, Daniel A. Friedman, "Political Socialization and Models of Moral Development," in S. Renshon (ed.) Handbook of Political Socialization Theory and Research (New York: The Free Press, 1977), pp. 324-361; Robert D. Hess and Judith V. Torney, The Development of Political Attitudes in Children (Chicago: Aldive Publishing Co., 1967), Chapter 1; Albert Bandura, "Social-Learning Theory of Identificatory Processes," in D. Goslin (ed.), Handbook of Socialization Theory and Research (Chicago: Rand McNally, 1969), pp. 213-263.

[29]Richard A. Gorton, and Kenneth E. McIntyre, The Senior High Principalship, Vo. 2, Reston, Virginia: The National Association of Secondary Principals, 1978, p. 15.

[30]Gordon L. Lippitt, Visualizing Change, (LaJolla, California: University Associates, Inc., 1973, p. 5.

[31]Richard C. Gross, "The Status of the Social Studies in the Public Schools of the U.S.: Facts and Impressions of a National Survey," Social Education, Vol. 41:3 (March, 1977), pp. 194-201.

[32]Governor's Commission on Public Education, Public Education in Texas (1969), cited by Paul Goldstein, Changing the American Schoolbook (Lexington, Mass.: D.C. Heath and Company, 1978), p. 1.

[33]NSF commissioned three types of studies: a national survey of administrators and teachers, Iris R. Weiss. Report of the 1977 National Survey of Science, Mathematics, and Social Studies Education (U.S. Government Printing Office (GPO), Washington, D.C., 20402, #038-000-00364-0, $6.50); a twenty year review of research literature, for social studies see, Karen B. Wiley, The Status of Pre-College Science, Mathematics and Social Science Education: 1955-1975. Volume III: Social Science Education (GPO, #038-000-00363-1, $6.25); an ethnographic/field observer case-study approach, Robert E. Stake and Jack A. Easley, Jr., Case Studies in Science Education: Volume I: The Case Reports (GPO, #038-000-00377, $7.25) and Volume II: Design, Overview and General Findings (GPO, #038-000-00376-3, $6.50).

See also, James P. Shaver, O.L. Davis and Suzanne W. Helburn, "The Status of Social Studies Education: Impressions From Three NSF Studies," Social Education, Vol. 43:2 (February, 1979), pp. 150-153.

[34]Robert E. Yager and Ronald Stodghill, "School in An Age of Science," Educational Leadership (March, 1979), pp. 439-445.

[35]Shaver, Davis and Helburn, "Status of Social Studies," p. 151 and Weiss, Report of the National Survey, Chapter 7.

[36]Mullis, "Effects of Home and School on Learning Mathematics, Political Knowledge and Political Attitudes," pp. 34-35.

[37]Ehman, "The Function of the School," For some reservations about the consequences of democratizing the classroom see, Mary Anne Raywid, "The Democratic Classroom: Mistake or Misoomer," Theory Into Practice, Volume XV:1 (February, 1976), pp. 37-46.

[38]Torney, Oppenheim, Farnen, Civic Education, p. 18.

[39]Weiss, Report of the National Survey, chapter 6 and Wiley, The Status of Pre-College Science, Section 1.3.

[40]Louis Fischer, "Democracy for Students: The Constitution Enters Schools," Theory Into Practice, Volume XV: 1 (February, 1976), pp. 8-13.

[41]*Tinker v. Des Moines*, 393 U.S. 503 (1969).

[42]For example, see D. John Grove, Richard C. Remy and L. Harmon Zeigler, "Political Socialization and Political Ideology as Sources of Educational Discontent," Social Science Quarterly, Vol. 55:2 (September, 1974), pp. 411-425.

[43]For example, David Ziblatt, "High School Extracurricular Activities and Political Socialization," The Annals, Vol. 361, (1965), pp. 20-31; Harold J. Burback, "An Empirical Study of Powerlessness Among High School Students," High School Journal, Vol. 55, No. 7 (April, 1972), pp. 343-354.

[44]Ehman, "The Function of the School," p. 25.

[45]Thomas J. Sergiovanni and Fred D. Carver, The New School Executive: A Theory of Administration (New York: Dodd, Mead & Co., 1974) p. 170.

[46]See, for example, Richard C. Remy, "The Challenge of Citizenship Education Today," paper prepared for the U.S. Office of Education, Task Force on Citizenship Education, 1977; Richard E. Dawson, Kenneth E. Prewitt and Karen S. Dawson, Political Socialization, 2nd Edition (Boston: Little Brown and Company, 1977); Robert Weissberg, Political Learning, Political Choice and Democratic Citizenship (Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, 1974); John J. Patrick, Political Socialization of American Youth, Research Bulletin No. 3 (Washington, D.C.: National Council for the Social Studies, 1967).

[47]Harold Entwistle, Political Educaton in a Democracy (London: Routledge and Kegan Paul, 1971).

[48]Dawson, et.al. Political Socialization, pp. 184-85; Patrick, Political Socialization of American Youth;

[49]James M. Lipham and James A. Hoeh, Jr., The Principalship: Foundations and Functions (New York: Harper and Row, Publishers, 1974) p. 182.

[50]Ibid., p. 184

[51]Francis S. Chase, "The Administrator As Implementor of the Goals of Education for our Time," The Administors Notebook, Vol. XXV (1976-77), No. 1, Midwest Administration Center, The University of Chicago.

[52]Andre L. Delbecq, et. al. Group Techniques for Program Planning (Glenview, Ill., Scott, Foresman and Company, 1975).

[53]Larry L. Slonaker, and Phillip M. Burgess, The Decision Seminar: A Strategy for Problem Solving. Columbus, Ohio: Mershon Center for Leadership and Public Policy, 1975.

[54]Trevor J. Gambell, "Schools, Children and Politics," The Canadian Administrators (March, 1979).

[55]James G. Harlow, Purpose Defining: The Central Function of the School Administrator" in Walter G. Hock, et al. Educational Administration: Selected Readings (Boston: Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 1971) pp. 17-25.

Appendix 1

SUMMARY CHART OF BASIC CITIZENSHIP COMPETENCIES

This chart summarizes the seven competencies and capacities which contribute to them. The chart also provides *examples* of knowledge, skills and attitudes relevant to each capacity. These examples are only intended to illustrate the various traits associated with each competency. They do not define the knowledge, skills and attitudes that make up each competence and the capacities associated with it.

This chart may be reproduced for use at in-service or staff development sessions. It may also be used with the Competency Checklist in Appendix 2.

SUMMARY CHART OF CITIZENSHIP COMPETENCIES

COMPETENCE in . . .	Involves and is demonstrated by the CAPACITY to . . .	which implies such knowledge, skills and attitudes as . . .
1) acquiring and using information	1.1) use newspaners and magazines to obtain current information and opinions about issues and problems. . .	a) reading at an appropriate level; b) distinguishing the various parts of a newspaper or magazine (editorials, opinion columns, news stories); c) understanding possible sources of bias in news gathering and reporting; d) distinguishing statements of fact and value.
	1.2) use books, maps, charts, graphs and other sources. . . .	a) reading at an appropriate level; b) identifying the most appropriate source(s) of information for a problem at hand; c) applying basic information processing skills (e.g., reading for the main idea; use of index headings and summaries) to the material.
	1.3 recognize the unique advantages and disadvantages of radio and television as sources of information about issues and problems . . .	a) understanding the role and nature of the media in the American economic system; b) distinguishing between psuedo-events and real events.
	1.4 identify and acquire information from public and private sources such as government agencies and community groups. . .	a) identifying the most appropriate source(s) of information from the problem at hand; b) using appropriate channels and procedures to obtain needed information.
	1.5 obtain information from fellow citizens by asking appropriate questions. . .	a) developing productive and relevant questions; b) identifying the best person(s) to answer a given question; c) selecting effective methods of communicating a question such as a letter, telephone interview or survey.
	1.6 evaluate the validity and quality of information . . .	a) distinguishing normative and empirical statements; b) understanding the nature of sampling c) understanding the nature and logic of evidence.
	1.7 organize and use information collected. . .	a) making longitudinal and cross-sectional comparisons; b) clarifying information according to consistent sets of criteria; c) conceptualizing information by analyzing it, breaking larger concepts into sub-concepts; d) conceptualizing information by synthesis, combining objects or ideas into more inclusive conceots; e) making inferences from available information; f) developing hypotheses that assert a relationship between two or more variables. g) imagining alternative possibilities for existing realities; h) evaluating the reliability and validity of information.

*The numbering system for the capacities does not imply a hierarchy among capacities. Thus, for example, capacity 1.6 should not be taken as more important than 1.3 or 1.5 nor do the numbers imply that 1.1 to 1.5 logically or developmentally precede 1.6.

SUMMARY CHART OF CITIZENSHIP COMPETENCIES

COMPETENCE in . . .	Involves and is demonstrated by the CAPACITY to . . .	which implies such knowledge, skills and attitudes as . . .
2) assessing involvement	2.1) identify a wide range of implications for an event or condition . . .	a) identifying several groups affected by an event or condition; b) seeing that an event or condition can have: multiple consequences, different consequences for different groups, different consequences for different values such as wealth, health, safety, etc.
	2.2) identify ways individual actions and beliefs can produce consequences . . .	a) empathizing with others and recognizing their needs, feelings and interests; b) holding others' interests as legitimate and valuable as one's own.
	2.3 identify your rights and obligations in a given situation.	a) taking a socio-centric rather than ego-centric perspective; b) identifying relationships among trends, changes, problems in a group; c) seeing how individual acts can accumulate to produce consequences which are difficult to predict.
3) making decisions	3.1 develop realistic alternatives . . .	a) collecting information relevant to the decision problem; b) imagining alternative possibilities for existing realities.
	3.2 identify the consequences of alternatives for self and others . . .	a) empathizing with others, and recognizing their needs and interests; b) taking other's interests as legitimate as one's own interests; c) looking ahead and recognizing that actions have consequences which can ramify and accumulate.
	3.3 determine goals or values involved in the decision . . .	a) identifying the values which are involved in a decision problem; b) clarifying which values are of greatest importance.
	3.4 assess the consequences of alternatives based on stated values or goals .	a) identifying the extent to which a consequence violates or reinforces a value.

SUMMARY CHART OF CITIZENSHIP COMPETENCIES

COMPETENCE in . . .	Involves and is demonstrated by the CAPACITY to . . .	which implies such knowledge, skills and attitudes as . . .
4) making judgments	4.1) Identify and, if necessary, develop appropriate criteria for making a judgment . . .	a) clarifying the purpose for which a judgment is being made; b) identifying one's beliefs and values relevant to the judgment problem; c) identifying and assessing the utility of "traditional wisdom" as a source of criteria.
	4.2 apply the criteria to known facts. . .	a) preparing a mental or written checklist of criteria; b) comparing the problem in terms of the items in the checklist.
	4.3 periodically reassess criteria . . .	a) using a variety of sources to collect information on the continuing relevance of criteria; b) judging whether criteria are workable in light of changing purposes and conditions.
	4.4 recognize that others may apply different criteria to a problem .	a) recognizing that people culturally different from oneself may have different standards; b) according legitimacy to standards different than one's own.
5) communicating	5.1 develop reasons supporting your point of view . . .	a) collecting information relevant to the problem at hand; b) logically organizing information to support one's position
	5.2 present these viewpoints to friends, neighbors, and acquaintences . . .	a) speaking clearly and writing clearly; b) understanding the concerns and values of others.
	5.3 present these viewpoints in writing to public officials, political leaders and to newspapers and magazines . . .	a) identifying the appropriate audiences for one's message; b) identifying the most appropriate form and procedures for submitting messages to target audience; c) writing clearly.
	5.4 present these viewpoints at public meetings such as committees, school board meetings, city government sessions, etc.	a) identifying the procedures involved in submitting such a message to a particular group; b) speaking clearly.

SUMMARY CHART OF CITIZENSHIP COMPETENCIES

COMPETENCE in . . .	Involves and is demonstrated by the CAPACITY to . . .	which implies such knowledge, skills and attitudes as . . .
6) cooperating	6.1 clearly present your ideas about group tasks and problems . . .	a) organizing one's ideas and thoughts; b) present ideas in a logical and orderly fashion.
	6.2 take various roles in a group . . .	a) organizing and leading a discussion; b) listen carefully to the views of others.
	6.3 tolerate ambiguity . . .	a) seeing ambiguity and uncertainty as natural and inevitable; b) accepting the best solution or answer currently available while continuing to work on a problem.
	6.4 manage or cope with disagreement within a group . . .	a) seeing conflict as a natural and inevitable part of the human condition; b) identifying alternative ways to manage a conflict including withdrawal and compromise; c) seeing the moral complexities involved in a conflict in the sense that two conflicting parties may both have a legitimate basis for their position.
	6.5 interact with others using democratic principles . . .	a) seeing and treating others in non-egocentric ways. b) seeing and treating others in a non-ethnocentric way. c) empathize with others.
	6.6 work with others of different race, sex, culture, ethnicity, age and ideology .	a) avoiding stereotypic perceptions of others; b) seeing racial, cultural, sexual, ethnic and age related diversity as natural and inevitable.

SUMMARY CHART OF CITIZENSHIP COMPETENCIES

COMPETENCE in . . .	Involves and is demonstrated by the CAPACITY to . . .	which implies such knowledge, skills and attitudes as . . .
7) Promoting interests	7.1) recognize your interests and goals in a given situation . . .	a) asking what do I want; what are my goals in this situation; b) distinguishing between long-term and short-term interests; c) recognizing what may be realistically achieved in any given situation.
	7.2 identify an appropriate strategy for a given situation . . .	a) recognizing there may be alternative ways to exert influence; b) calculating the costs and benefits of one strategy over another in terms of one's purposes.
	7.3 work through organized groups to support your interests . . .	a) finding groups most relevant to the problem, situation or issue with which one is concerned; b) arranging one's time and responsibility to allow for participation in such groups.
	7.4 use legal remedies to protect your rights and interests . . .	a) recognizing how and when one's legal rights are affected by a problem or issue; b) identifying basic tvpes of legal procedures which may be related to the problem one is dealing with, including lawsuits, criminal procedures, and injunctions. c) identifying the principal legal institutions and actors available to an individual including lawvers, legal clinics, and small claims courts.
	7.5 identify and use the established greivance procedures within a bureaucracy or organization .	a) recognizing the nature of bureaucracy; b) locate sources of information on grievance procedures.

APPENDIX 2

CITIZENSHIP COMPETENCY CHECKLIST

The checklist has been designed to assist teachers and curriculum supervisors compare instructional materials; assess goals, objectives and classroom instruction and set new goals.*

To examine instructional materials, the first set of columns marked "materials" are used. Citizenship competencies and related capacities are listed in the first column. If the textbook or set of materials being examined includes opportunities for students to learn a capacity, this is indicated by placing an "X" in the "yes" column; if not, the "X" should be placed in the "No" column.

If it is decided the materials provide capacity-building learning opportunities, move to criteria in the "Materials" column. These are criteria for indicating satisfaction with the quality of the learning opportunities the materials provide. Four criteria are used. They are:

> REFLECTION AND DEBRIEFING: *Good citizenship instruction incorporates reflection or debriefing by the learners.* Adequate instruction cannot be said to have taken place unless the student has in some manner considered and thought about the essential meaning or meaning of each learning experience.
>
> PERSONALLY MEANINGFUL: *Good citizenship instruction connects to the experiences of learners so they perceive them as relevant.* This criterion implies that learning experiences should deal with persons, events, and political phenomena that touch students' lives in some immediate or pressing way. This does not mean that students should not be asked to consider phenomena in some remote place or at another point in time. It does mean, at least initially, that relevance may need to be made explicit. As they interact with and practice the gamut of citizenship competencies, students will finally begin to make linkages for themselves.

---

*Detailed instructions and suggestions for using this checklist as a diagnostic tool as well as instructions for an optional numerical scoring scheme are contained in Mary Jane Turner, *Guide to Basic Citizenship Competencies: Recommendations to Compare Curriculum Materials, Assess Instruction and Set Goals.*

REINFORCEMENT: *Good citizenship instruction provides for cumulative reinforcement without boring repetition.* Iteration and continued opportunities to practice basic competencies and reflect upon the experiences are sequenced throughout the curriculum, starting at the earliest grade levels and continuing until graduation. For the individual teacher this criterion has a quantity as well as a quality dimension. That is, each teacher has the responsibility of providing a substantial number of learning experiences that build upon what has been taught in earlier grades or form a foundation for what will be included at subsequent levels.

APPLICATION: *Good citizenship instruction encourages active competency learning.* This criterion does not mean, although it does not preclude, that students must participate in events in the "real" world. It does mean, however, that students must be engaged in learning experiences in which they can practice the capacities associated with the citizenship competencies. Practice involves students in applying facts, skills, and values to real or simulated political phenomena and then reflecing upon the meaning of their involvement.

If the learning experiences are satisfactory according to the criterion, indicate it by placing an "X" in the column. If not, leave the column blank. This allows teachers to set their own goals for professional development.

The next column, marked "Goals," may be used to examine either instructional objectives or district goals. If no goals are included which relate to the capacities, you may wish to revise or add to them.

The last column, marked "Instruction," can be used in the same fashion as columns two through six. This column refers to the teachers own instructional program in the classroom.

APPENDIX 3

SOURCES FOR EVALUATING CURRICULUM MATERIALS

The Social Science Education Consortium has the following materials available for the evaluation of curriculum materials. They may be obtained by writing to the Consortium at 855 Broadway, Boulder, Colorado 80302.

1. Curriculum Materials Analysis System: Short Form (CMAS) (Publication #143, $1.50).
   An open-ended, extensive assessment tool to evaluate the general educational quality of curriculum materials.

2. Materials Analysis Form: Elementary and Materials Analysis Form: Secondary (Free)
   Short, readily usable forms specifically for assessing the *social studies* content of materials.

3. Ethnic Materials Analysis Instrument (Free).
   An analysis system which can be used to assess the extent of racial and ethnic stereotyping in curriculum materials.

4. Sexism Materials Analysis Instrument (Free)
   An instrument to assess the extent of sex stereotyping in curriculum materials.

The National Council for the Social Studies has a set of "Social Studies Curriculum Guidelines" which can be used to assess needs and materials in terms of major social studies goals.

These Guidelines are published in the April, 1979 issue of Social Education, the NCSS journal, and may be reproduced.

APPENDIX 4

SOME RESOURCES FOR KEEPING UP IN CITIZENSHIP/SOCIAL STUDIES EDUCATION AND A SELECTED BIBLIOGRAPHY

RESOURCES

American Bar Association, Special Committee on Youth Education for Citizenship, 1155 E. 60th Street, Chicago, Illinois 60637.
Publishes papers, directories, and working notes on law-related education for pre-college level.

American Political Science Association, Committee on Pre-Collegiate Education, 1527 New Hampshire Avenue, N.W., Washington, D.C. 20036.
This APSA Committee has developed a number of projects and products related to citizenship education.

Center for Teaching International Relations, Graduate School of International Studies, University of Denver, Denver, Colorado 80208.
Publishes a newsletter and resource kits.

Center for Global Perspectives, 218 East Eighteenth Street, New York, New York 10003.
Publishes *Intercom* and a variety of instructional materials. Also provides resources for program development.

Citizenship Development Program, Mershon Center, 199 West 10th Avenue, Columbus, Ohio 43201.
The program seeks to promote citizen competency by developing educational programs, facilitating citizen participation in the civic education process, directing research to school problems and conducting workshops.

ERIC Clearinghouse for Social Studies/Social Science Education, 855 Broadway, Boulder, Colorado 80302.
Provides information on materials and research relevant to particular problems in social studies/social science education. Also, publishes occasional papers to help teachers utilize materials and research.

Foreign Policy Association, 345 East 46th Street, New York, New York 10017
Sponsors "Great Decisions" discussion programs. Publishes *Headline Series, Great Decisions* series, and *Guide* to key foreign policy issues.

Institute for World Order, 1140 Avenue of the Americas, New York, New York 10036.
Sponsors a variety of educational programs and publishes books, a series *(Ways and Means of Teaching About World Order)*, and *Progress Reports*.

Joint Council on Economic Education, 1212 Avenue of the Americas, New York, New York 10036
Provides various resources for educational programs and publishes a newsletter, an annual report, various booklets, manuals, and teaching aids, and the *Journal of Economic Education*.

National Council for the Social Studies, 2030 M Street, N.W., Suite 406, Washington, D.C. 20036.
Publishes the journal *Social Education*, a monthly newsletter, extensive bulletins, and a How-To-Do-It series. Holds a national convention each year and provides a variety of services for members.

National Endowment for the Humanities, Washington, D.C. 20506.
Sponsors various programs for education in the humanities.

National Humanities Faculty, 1266 Main Street, Concord, Massachusetts 01742.
Provides financial and monetary resources for schools seeking to develop new programs in the humanities or interdisciplinary studies.

Research for Better Schools, Citizen Education Component, Suite 1700, 1700 Market Street, Philadelphia, PA 19103.
RBS is a private, nonprofit educational laboratory supported largely through contracts with the National Institute of Education.

Social Science Education Consortium, Inc., 855 Broadway, Boulder, Colorado 80302.
Publishes a newsletter, occasional papers, and the *Social Studies Curriculum Materials Data Book*, which is up-dated twice a year with information on new curriculum materials. Also conducts workshops for training teachers in the use and selection of materials.

Social Studies Development Center, 513 N. Park, Indiana University, Bloomington, Indiana 47401.
Offers a variety of services, such as training of change agents and conducting workshops, as well as develops curriculum materials.

U.S. Office of Education, Citizen Education Office, Washington, D.C.
During 1977-1978 the U.S. Office of Education supported the preparation of these reports on citizenship education.

An Analysis of the Role of the U.S. Office of Education and Other Selected Federal Agencies in Citizen Education, Publication No. (OE) 78-07002.

Key Concepts of Citizenship: Perspectives and Dilemmas. Publication No. (OE) 78-07005.

The Citizenship Education Issue: Problems and Programs, Education Commission of the States, Report No. 123, February, 1979.

SELECTED BIBLIOGRAPHY

Books

Cleary, Robert E., Political Education in the American Democracy. Intext Educational Publishers, 1971. The purpose of political education in a democracy must be to develop the ability of citizens to analyze public issues in a rational way.

Entwistle, Harold, Political Education in a Democracy. Routledge & Kegan Paul, 1971. Entwistle feels that the macro approach to political education provides an unsatisfactory account of how citizens function most actively and satisfactorily in the political arena. Emphasis on citizen involvement with micro-institutions would be more appropriate.

Foy, Robert et. al. ed., A Framework for Social Science Education, Social Science Education Consortium, 1973. The authors promote a need for curriculum revision with the students involved in data gathering, data analysis, inference testing, value judging and action designing.

Hall, Robert T. and Davis, John U., Moral Education in Theory & Practice, Prometheus Books. Discuss development of specific skills of decision-making. The ability to envisage alternative kinds of actions, the ability to gain some judgment of the personal and social values implicit in one's actions.

Jennings, M.K. and Niemi, Richard, The Political Character of Adolescence, Princeton University Press, 1974. Their study looks at the factors that have prepared adolescents for political participation. What are their political values? What were the sources of those values?

Kurfman, Dana G., ed., Developing Decision-Making Skills, National Council for the Social Studies, 1977. Discussion of developing decision-making skills and its relationship to citizenship.

Newmann, Fred M., Education for Citizen Action: Challenge for Secondary Curriculum. McCutchan Publishing Corporation, 1975. Schools are not turning out persons competent enough to be involved in participatory democracy. Proposes an agenda for curriculum development to meet that problem.

Remy, Richard C., et. al., International Learning and International Education in a Global Age. National Council for the Social Studies, 1975. It is important for the development of International education that teachers be aware of their own world-views, alternative world-views and the process of children's learning about the world.

Roelofs, H. Mark, The Tensions of Citizenship: Private Man and Public Duty. Rinehart and Company, Inc., 1957. Roelofs identifies and analyzes three major values of democratic citizenship (participation, loyalty, and individualism) and examines them within the historal context in which they originated. His aim is to elucidate the social and above all, the moral content of democratic citizenship from a historical perspective.

Shaver, James P., ed., Building Rationales for Citizenship Education, National Council for the Social Studies, 1977. A collection of articles on the theme of reconceptualization of and rationale-building for citizenship education.

Thompson, Dennis F., The Democratic Citizen, Cambridge University Press, 1970. Thompson relates a theory of democratic citizenship to studies from behavioral social science. He concludes that "the findings of social science are within certain limits very useful in formulating a theory of democratic citizenship, and citizenship theory can be reconciled with and supported by these findings."

ARTICLES

Anderson, Lee F., Remy, Richard C. and Snyder, Richard C., "Criteria for Improving Political Education in Elementary School," International Journal of Political Education, Vol. 1, No. 1, September, 1977. The paper proposes an approach to political education in elementary school that describes criteria to help students learn to practice citizenship. 1

Bennett, William and Delattre, Edwin J., "Moral Education in the Schools" The Public Interest, Winter, 1978, #50. Criticism of Sidney Simon's Value Clarification method of moral education and also Kohlberg's cognitive moral development method. 4

Bernstein, Edgar "Citizenship and the Social Studies," School Review Vol. 79, No. 3 (May 1971). Says social studies should develop a sequestering of experiences and activities which will result in the development of adult capabilities for a democratic society. 1

Beyer, Barry K. and French, Henry P., "Effective Citizenship: A Continuing Challenge" Social Education, Vol. 29, No. 6 (Oct. 1965). Social studies programs should develop politically competent as well as intellectually competent students. 1

Buggey, JoAnne, "Citizenship and Community Involvement: The Primary Grades" Social Education Vol. 40, No. 3 (March, 1976). Community involvement can be a key to successful citizenship education within the primary grades.

Butts, Freeman, "Education for Citizenship: The Oldest, Newest Innovation in Schools," Center for Information on America. Vol. XXVII, No. 8 (April, 1977). Citizenship education best achieved by allowing them to participate in choices among alternatives, through the use of acting upon their values and gaining knowledge necessary to participate in political system. School can do this by being a political system itself. 1

Hawley, Willis, "Political Education and School Organization," Theory Into Practice, Vol. X, No. 5. Schools teach democracy but do not practice it. They should be organized to teach by example. 1,3,6

Hawley, Willis, "Political Education and School Organization," Theory Into Practice Vol. X, No. 5. To encourage more participatory democracy, change the way the schools are run and the relationship between teachers and students. 6

Jaworski, Leon, "Leadership in Citizenship," Today's Education, Vol. 64, No. 1, Jan.-Feb. 1975. Schools need to institute and enlarge programs for youth in the fundamentals of law in a free society and in the responsibilities of leadership.

Kohlberg, Lawrence, "A Cognitive-Developmental Approach to Moral Education," The Humanist, No.-Dec. 1972. Psychological research has discovered culturally universal stages of moral development. These findings help generate a philosophy of moral education as the stimulation of moral development, rather than the direct teaching of fixed moral rules. 4

McClelland, David, "Testing for Competence Rather than for Intelligence," American Psychologist, Jan. 1973. The author issues strong arguments against intelligence testing and suggests alternatives. 1,2,3,4,5,6,7

Morgan, Edward P., "High School Learning as Political Socialization: An Experiential Approach," Northeast Political Science Association, November, 1977. Looks at the high school learning process as a micro-political experience. From an empirical study found that the school experience was basically hostile to the formation of democratic attitudes and behavior orientations.

Northup & Barnes, "Developing Thinking Skills That are Basic to Citizenship." Paper presented at Annual Meeting of the National Council for the Social Studies (Cincinnati, Ohio, November 23-26, 1977).

Pranger, Robert J., "Experience as a Form of Political Education" Report for 1971 APSA Chicago, Illinois. Political education should blend abstract ideas and concrete experiences. 1

Ravitch, Diane, "Moral Education and the Schools" Commentary Vol. 56, No. 3, September, 1973. All education transmits values. The school environment itself requires the continual exercise of moral choice, and is thus an excellent focus for giving children experience in evaluation and decision-making.

Remy, Richard C., "High School Seniors' Attitudes Toward Their Civics and Government Instruction," Social Education, Vol. 36, No. 6 (Oct. 1972). Study found students wanted a change in curricula that would help them develop their abilities to analyze and evaluate political life.

Remy, Richard C., "Making, Judging and Influencing Political Decisions: A Focus for Citizenship Education," Social Education, Vol. 40, No. 8 (Oct., 1976). Classrooms must facilitate the development of decision-making capabilities in students to bridge the gap between future political choices made by students and decisions made by students in their daily lives. 1

Remy, Richard C., Anderson, Lee F., and Snyder, Richard C., "An Experience-Based Approach to Citizenship Education in Elementary School," Theory Into Practice Vol., XIV, No. 1 (Feb. 1976). New programs need to make students active learners. This means they must teach competencies transferable to problems of everyday life.

Senesh, Lawrence, "Orchestration of Social Science in the Curriculum Social Science on the Schools: A Search for Rationale" ed. by J. Morrisett and W.W. Stevens, Jr., New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1971. A pre-requisite of good citizenship in a free society is the development of children's problem-solving ability. 1

Descriptors for Political Understanding: A Guide to Asking Questions About Learning Related to Political Literacy in Wisconsin Schools, K-12. Wisconsin State Dept. of Public Instruction. The guide's main objective is to promote civic literacy through increased knowledge and understanding of political structures and processes and of effective citizen participation. Emphasis is on helping students develop skills to participate in a democratic society. 3,2,4.

APPENDIX 5

SCHOOL CLIMATE CHECKLISTS

SCHOOL CLIMATE CHECKLIST FOR PRINCIPALS

Directions

The purpose of this survey is to solicit your opinions and attitudes about your school.

In answering each question go through the following steps:

1. Read the statement carefully.
2. Think about and decide to what extent the statement describes your school.
3. Place a check mark for each statement according to the following instructions:

   If the statement describes your school to a great extent, check space 1.

   If the statement describes your school to some extent, check space 2.

   If the statement describes your school to no extent, check space 3.

	To a Great Extent	To Some Extent	To No Extent
1. I provide information about administrative decisions to faculty.	___	___	___
2. I provide information about administrative decisions to students.	___	___	___
3. I encourage and support written information systems such as publications and news releases.	___	___	___
4. I monitor information flow in the school in order to correct misinformation and control rumors.	___	___	___
5. I involve others in decisions which will affect them.	___	___	___
6. I delegate decision-making where practical.	___	___	___
7. I hold people accountable for their decisions.	___	___	___
8. I demonstrate tolerance and a positive attitude toward diversity in the school and community.	___	___	___
9. I minimize conflict by clarifying expectations.	___	___	___
10. I build awareness of and encourage skills in conflict resolution.	___	___	___
11. I build awareness of extra-school sources of conflict which manifest themselves in the school.	___	___	___
12. I make students aware of sources of authority.	___	___	___
13. I insure a range of curriculum options and opportunities for all students.	___	___	___
14. I involve staff and teachers in change decisions regarding the school.	___	___	___

	To a Great Extent	To Some Extent	To No Extent
15. I encourage teamwork.	___	___	___
16. I involve people in cooperative ventures.	___	___	___
17. I delegate authority to teachers.	___	___	___
18. I expand existing opportunities for students to assume responsibilities in school governance.	___	___	___
19. I increase student responsibility in school activities.	___	___	___
20. I facilitate decision-making by consensus in student activities and certain staff decisions.	___	___	___
21. I accept consensus of students or staff on non-critical decisions.	___	___	___

SCHOOL CLIMATE CHECKLIST FOR TEACHERS

Directions

The purpose of this survey is to solicit your opinions and attitudes about your school.

In answering each question go through the following steps:

1. Read the statement carefully.
2. Think about and decide to what extent the statement describes your school.
3. Place a check mark for each statement according to the following instructions:

   If the statement describes your school to a great extent, check space 1.

   If the statement describes your school to some extent, check space 2.

   If the statement describes your school to no extent, check space 3.

	To a Great Extent	To Some Extent	To No Extent
1. Teachers in this school are provided adequate information about administrative decisions.	____	____	____
2. Teachers are informed in writing of important decisions affecting the school.	____	____	____
3. Rumors are an important source of information in this school.	____	____	____
4. Teachers are involved in many important decisions in this school.	____	____	____
5. My principal sometimes delegates responsibility for decisions to teachers.	____	____	____
6. In this school, people are held accountable for their decisions.	____	____	____
7. Our school provides opportunities for students to observe racial, ethnic, cultural and age-related diversity.	____	____	____
8. The administration in this school is tolerant of and positive toward diversity in the school and community.	____	____	____
9. Teachers in this school understand what is expected of them in terms of their job.	____	____	____
10. Our principal is aware of the sources of conflict in the school which originate outside the school.	____	____	____
11. Students in this school know who the sources of authority are.	____	____	____
12. Abuses of authority are rare in this school.	____	____	____

	To a Great Extent	To Some Extent	To No Extent
13. People in our school are aware of who the most respected individuals in the school and community are.	___	___	___
14. Our curriculum is flexible and open to revision.	___	___	___
15. When changes are made in the school, students and teachers have had a chance for input.	___	___	___
16. Teachers in this school are able to initiate change.	___	___	___
17. The staff in this school work well together.	___	___	___
18. Teachers work jointly on many school projects.	___	___	___
19. There are examples of inter-disciplinary instruction in our school.	___	___	___
20. Students in this school have some responsibility for school governance.	___	___	___
21. Students have important responsibilities in student activities.	___	___	___

SCHOOL CLIMATE CHECKLIST FOR SECONDARY STUDENTS

Directions

The purpose of this survey is to solicit your opinions and attitudes about your school.

In answering each question go through the following steps:

1. Read the statement carefully.
2. Think about and decide to what extent the statement describes your school.
3. Place a check mark for each statement according to the following instructions:

   If the statement describes your school to a great extent, check space 1.

   If the statement describes your school to some extent, check space 2.

   If the statement describes your school to no extent, check space 3.

	To a Great Extent	To Some Extent	To No Extent
1. Students are aware of what is happening in the school.	___	___	___
2. Our school newspaper is up to date on what is going on in the school.	___	___	___
3. There are always a lot of rumors going around our school.	___	___	___
4. Our principal talks with students before he makes decisions which are likely to affect us.	___	___	___
5. Sometimes our principal allows students to make important decisions affecting the school.	___	___	___
6. Students in our school are held responsible for their actions.	___	___	___
7. Students in our school are held responsible for their actions.	___	___	___
8. Our principal treats students the same, no matter what their race or background is.	___	___	___
9. Students in our school know what is expected of them.	___	___	___
10. Students in our school usually know how to settle disputes because of agreed-to rules and regulations.	___	___	___
11. Our principal knows that a lot of problems in school start outside of school.	___	___	___
12. Students in our school know who is in charge of different activities.	___	___	___
13. Our principal often asks for students' opinions before he makes important secisions.	___	___	___

	To a Great Extent	To Some Extent	To No Extent
14. There are ways for students to try to change things in the school.	___	___	___
15. Teachers in our school get along with each other.	___	___	___
16. Students who cooperate and act responsibly are rewarded in our school.	___	___	___
17. Sometimes our principal accepts what the students suggest as a solution to a problem.	___	___	___
18. Our principal tries to involve students in important decision about the school.	___	___	___
19. Teachers in our school try to get along well with students.	___	___	___
20. Students can schedule meetings with our principal to discuss their interests and concerns.	___	___	___
21. If a student feels that he or she has been mistreated, there is a way for him or her to file a complaint and be heard.	___	___	___

SCHOOL CLIMATE CHECKLIST FOR ELEMENTARY STUDENTS

This is not a test. The questions are to find out what your school is like.

Each sentence is meant to describe your school. If you agree with the sentence, circle yes. If you don't agree with the sentence, circle no. If you are not sure, circle not sure.

EXAMPLE

Circle Your Answer

1. Most children in the school are good friends. Yes No Not Sure

If you think that most children in the school are good friends circle the yes like this:

1. Most children in the school are good friends. (Yes) No Not Sure

If you do not think that most children in the school are good friends, circle the no like this:

1. Most children in the school are good friends. Yes (No) Not Sure

If you are not sure that most children in the school are good friends, circle the not sure like this:

1. Most children in the school are good friends. Yes No (Not Sure)

Circle Your Answer

1. Children in my school are not afraid to ask for help. Yes No Not Sure

2. Most pupils in my school know who the principal is. Yes No Not Sure

3. In my school, children know how they are supposed to behave. Yes No Not Sure

		Circle Your Answer		
4.	My principal asks us how we feel about things.	Yes	No	Not Sure
5.	Many pupils in my school get to choose their own school work.	Yes	No	Not Sure
6.	Children in my school obey the rules because they believe the rules are fair.	Yes	No	Not Sure
7.	Most pupils in my school like each other.	Yes	No	Not Sure
8.	Children in my school know the difference between right and wrong.	Yes	No	Not Sure
9.	My principal wants us to tell him how we feel about things.	Yes	No	Not Sure
10.	Children in my school argue a lot.	Yes	No	Not Sure
11.	Many children in my school like to work together.	Yes	No	Not Sure
12.	Most of the pupils in my school want to do better work than their friends.	Yes	No	Not Sure
13.	Children in my school never complain about things to the principal.	Yes	No	Not Sure
14.	Most of the time, our principal is too busy to see students about their problems.	Yes	No	Not Sure

APPENDIX E

The following cross-lists key items related to specific citizenship competencies on each of the four school climate checklists.

Basic Citizenship Competencies	SCCP	SCCT	SCCSS	SCCES
Acquiring Information	1,2,4	1,3,13	1,3,12	1,2
Assessing Involvement	5,11,13	9,10,14	4,9,11	3,4
Making Decisions	6,20,21	4,5,16	5,17,18	5,6
Making Judgments	7,18,19	6,20,21	6,10,13	7,8
Communicating	3,8,9	2,7,8	2,7,8	9,10
Cooperating	10,15,16	17,18,19	15,16,19	11,12
Promoting Interests	12,14,17	11,12,15	14,20,21	13,14

APPENDIX 6

SOURCES ON PARTICIPATORY MANAGEMENT STRATEGIES

Calkins, James E., Are Students Involved in Deciding Crucial Issues?, NASSP Bulletin, October, 1974.

Discussed the responsibility of principals and their willingness to share their power with students as a method of humanizing and democratizing schools while stimulating students in the decision making process.

Cook, James G. and Moore, Carl M. A Guide for Leaders Using Nominal Group Technique. Columbus, Ohio: Academy for Contemporary Problems.

Provides an excellent summary of the Nominal Group Technique, a structured process that facilitates the identification of problems, exploration of solutions and establishing priorities in a small group context.

Delbecq, Andre L., and VandeVen, Andrew H. and Gustafson, David H.; Group Techniques for Program Planning. Glenview, Illinois: Scott, Foresman and Company, 1975.

Discusses various techniques for structuring and facilitating program planning in group contexts. It focuses upon descriptions of the Nominal Group Technique and Delphi Technique. This work describes both how to implement these techniques and discuss their theoretical bases.

Fantini, Mario D.; The People and Their Schools: Community Participation. Phi Delta Kappa Educational Foundation, Bloomington, Indiana

Available from: Phi Delta Kappa, Eighth and Union, Box 788, Bloomington, Indiana 47401 ($0.50 single copy, $3.00 set of six, $18.00 complete set of sixty-six, Quantity discounts. Payment must accompany orders of less than $5.00) Document Not Available from EDRS.

This paper focuses on four participants in the public schools: parents, students, teachers, and administrators. These parties make up the key school community. This discussion highlights the rights and responsibilities of each of these major groups, especially in the curriculum, budget, and personnel areas of education organization. In order to provide perspective, the discussion begins with the

broader relationship of the school to the public community. This broad framework also emphasizes the emerging roles of the four participants as they deal with the dramatic changes that have taken place in society and that impinge on the school. After an extensivee discussion of the problems associated with public participation in the schools, the subject changes to the alternatives that allow the key participants to be involved in the governance of the schools and that allow each parent, each student, and each teacher to choose the type of educational enviornment to which he or she is attracted. In this way each participant controls his choice; no type of education is imposed on anyone.

Glatthorn, Allan A.; The Principal and the Student Council. National Association of Secondary School Principals, Washington, D.C. 1968.

Report No.: New Directions-Student Councils-10 Available from: National Association of Secondary School Principals, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W., Washington, D.C. 20036. (Single copy $1.00, quantity discounts) EDRS Price MF-$0.76 HC Not Available from EDRS. PLUS POSTAGE.

An active and viable student council can help to involve both rebellious and uncommitted students in useful outlets. The major causes of ineffective councils are homogeneous membership, weak leadership, and misinformed faculty advisors. Principals should take the initiative in solving these problems. To break down homogeniety, the council should represent groups divided along curriculum lines and student members at large should be appointed to broaden membership. To avoid weak leadership, the council should select its own officers. Full faculty support of the council is necessary if the faculty advisor is to be successful. In addition, the advisor must balance his actions to achieve a feeling of independence by the council. Of necessity, the faculty advisor must be aware of parliamentary procedure and school law and policy, and be able to empathize with the young. To insure viability of the council more concern for activities relating to teaching, learning, and community service should be encouraged, rather than the customary fund-raising and dance-sponsoring activities.

Glass, Thomas,; Community Involvement and Shared Decision Making, NASSP Bulletin, October 1977.

The community is a source of support that the schools have overlooked for too long. Citizen participation in school decision making can lead a school into change.

Olivero, James L., Working with Advisory Committees...Promising Practices Operations Notebook 16., Association of California School Administrators. April 1977.

Available from: Association of California School Administrators, 1575 Old Bayshore Highway, Burlingame, California 94010 ($2.00 for ACSA members; $4.00 non-members) EDRS Price MF-$0.83 HC-$2.06 Plus Postage.

This publication is intended to aid school-level education administrators in working with citizen advisory committees. After a brief discussion of the rationale for advisory committees, it focuses in turn on 1) functions of advisory committees, 2) ways to determine philosophical positions of agreement and disagreement among advisory committee participants, 3) ways to get people involved in advisory committees, 4) suggestions for developing a decision making model for advisory committees, 5) analyses of process skills needed to help advisory committees function effectively, 6) procedures for communicating advisory committee decisions, and 7) analyses of constraints on the effectiveness of advisory committees. The appendix presents an exercise that simulates the role of the citizen advisory committee in school budget formation.

Otto, Henry J.; and Veldman, Donald J.; Administrative Controls in Public Schools and Effective Working Relationships. Texas University, Austin., 1976.

Report No.: BR-5-8126-CRP-S-350. EDRS Price MF-$0.76 HC-$3.32 Plus Postage.

The control structure in public school systems was related to the dimensions of organizational climate by investigating the relationships of elementary principals' and teachers' scores on two measurement instruments. The Halpin-Croft Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire and the Mcleod Control Structure Description Questionnaire were administered to 38 principals and 684 teachers. The latter test contained 80 problem situations distributed equally into the four functional areas of educational program, developing personnel, managing the school, and community relations. It was found that there were significant relationships between and among the principals' allocations of scores on both tests and the teachers' allocations of scores on both tests. The general conclusion, however, was that principals and teachers do not use a common frame of reference for viewing their relationships to each other, and they see decision making and school climate from dissimilar vantage points.

Schaffarzick, Jon, Teacher and Lay Participation in Local Curriculum Change Considerations. April 22, 1976. Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association (San Francisco, California, April 19-23, 1976)

EDRS Price MF-$0.83 HC-$2.06 Plus Postage.

This study examines the roles of teachers and citizens in decision-making related to curriculum planning and change. Interviews were conducted with persons involved in curriculum decision-making in 34 school districts in order to ascertain how they determined whether or not to make elementary-level curriculum changes. The rational and political aspects of this process were analyzed, as well as patterns of participation by teachers and laymen. The study revealed that a variety of curriculum change processes exist in these different districts. Both teacher and citizen participation has increased across the past few years, although citizens participate less frequently in curriculum decisions than teachers. The participation of both groups, however, has generally been superficial, and the major decisions are still usually made by higher authorities. The study also revealed that conflict tends to increase participation, to enhance rationality, and to democratize political aspects of curriculum change. Because both teachers and laymen have certain restrictions on the time and energy they can devote to decision-making, they should be provided with better mechanisms and forums for their involvement.

Sergiovanni, Thomas J. and Carver, Fred J., The New School Executive: A Theory of Administration. New York: Dodd, Mead and Company 1974.

This text provides a wide ranging discussion of administrative theory and its application to school settings. It focuses upon participative management practices.

Slonaker, Larry L. and Burgess, Phillip M. The Decision Seminar: A Strategy for Problem Solving. Columbus, Ohio: Mershon Center for Leadership and Public Policy, 1975.

Describes the basic elements of the Decision Seminar, a highly structured and intricate structure for policy development, planning and problem solving based upon Harold Lasswell's conceptualization of the policy science.

Oregon University, Eugene. ERIC Clearinghouse on Educational Management. Participative Decision Making. The Best of ERIC Series, Number 7.

Sponsoring Agency: National Inst. of Education (DHEW), Washington,

D.C. Contract No.: OEC-8-080353-3514. Available from: ERIC/CEM, University of Oregon, Eugene, Oregon 97403 (Free)
EDRS Price MF-$0.76 HC-$1.58 PLUS POSTAGE

The 21 sources in this annotated bibliography--all of which are in the ERIC system--represent a wide range of thought on the pros, cons, and methods of involving various groups of people in the school's decision-making process. The bulk of the articles and documents are concerned with the desire of teachers and students to be included in decisionmaking and with administrator responses to this desire. Discussion of the often overlooked controversy over the inclusion of principals in district-wide decisionmaking is also included.

APPENDIX 7

COMMUNITY RESOURCE CHECKLIST FOR PRINCIPALS

The purpose of this checklist is to solicit your opinions and attitudes about your use of the community as a resource for citizenship education.

In answering each question go through the following steps:

1. Read the statement carefully.
2. Think about and decide to what extent the statement describes your school.
3. Place a check mark for each statement according to the following instructions:

   If the statement describes your school to a great extent, check space 1.

   If the statement describes your school to some extent, check space 2.

   If the statement describes your school to no extent, check space 3.

	To a Great Extent	To Some Extent	To No Extent
1. Members of the community with relevant talents or experiences speak to classes in our school.	____	____	____
2. Teachers consult with community-based experts in designing new programs.	____	____	____
3. Community resource people take part in staff inservice programs in the school.	____	____	____
4. Students have the opportunity to provide service to the community in our regular school program.	____	____	____
5. Our students are involved in school-sponsored volunteer work in social agencies in the community.	____	____	____
6. Students in our school are active participants in community organizations.	____	____	____
7. Businesses in our community provide valuable work experience for our students.	____	____	____
8. Teachers in our school are familiar with valuable resources in the community for instruction in citizenship education.	____	____	____
9. Our school has an active community advisory council.	____	____	____
10. Our school provides training opportunities for parents.	____	____	____

APPENDIX 8

Selected Readings on Community Involvement For Citizenship Education

Fred Newmann, Education for Citizen Action: Challenge for Secondary Curriculum (Berkeley, California: McCutchan Publishing Corporation, 1975).

National Commission on Resources for Youth, New Roles for Youth in the School and Community (New York: Citation, 1974).

Organizations Supporting Community Involvement Curriculum

A.B.A. Special Committee on Youth Education for Citizenship
American Bar Association
1155 East 60th Street
Chicago, Illinois 60637

Works to further the expansion of law-related studies at the secondary and elementary school levels.

ACTION
National Student Volunteer Program
806 Connecticut Avenue, N.W.
Washington, D.C. 20525

Promotes college and high school volunteer programs through handbooks, teacher and coordinator training sessions, shared information on student volunteer work throughout the United States. Publishes a periodical, the Synergist.

Center for a Voluntary Society
1785 Massachusetts Avenue
Washington, D.C. 20036

Promotes conferences, training, research, and publications relating to the general adult and youth volunteer movement, but no primary focus on the secondary school.

Center for Youth Development and Research
325 Haecker Hall
University of Minnesota
St. Paul, Minnesota 55101

Promotes the use of community resources for learning, particularly through long-term student involvement in publis and private community agencies.

Citizenship Education Clearning House
411 N. Elizabeth Avenue
St. Louis, Missouri 63136

Not a community action program in itself, CECH through a variety of activities sponsors and seeks to further high school programs which involve students directly in the civic life of their communities.

Executive High School Internships of America
680 Fifth Avenue, 9th Floor
New York, New York 10019

Sponsors a semester sabbatical with full academic credit for high school juniors and seniors to become nonpaid special assistants to senior officials of an organization or institution within the local community. Enrolls more than two thousand students from twenty-seven cities in sixteen states.

National Center for Voluntary Action
1625 Massachusetts Avenue, N.W.
Washington, D.C. 20036

Promotes volunteerism in general, publishes Voluntary Action Leadership and Voluntary Action News. No primary focus on the secondary school.

National Commission on Resources for Youth, Inc.
36 West 44th Street
New York, New York 10036

A nonprofit organization begun in 1967, NCRY has two principal functions: the collection and dissemination of information on community involvement programs for youth, and the development of such programs. Among the programs developed on a national scale are "Youth Tutor Youth" and the "Day Care Youth Helper Program." Has published 40 Projects by Groups of Kids, Youth into Adult, New Roles for Youth in the School and Community. Distributes films and videotapes.

COMPETENCY CHECKLISTS

COMPETENCIES	MATERIALS		CRITERIA				TOTAL	GOALS	INSTRUCTION		CRITERIA				TOTAL	REASONS FOR MAKING THIS JUDGMENT
	Curriculum Materials Do They Include These?		Materials Provide for Reflection & Debriefing	Materials Are Personally Meaningful	Materials Provide for Reinforcement	Materials Provide for Application		Your Goals: Are These Included?	Your Instruction: Do You Teach These?		Instruction Provides for Reflection & Debriefing	Instruction Is Personally Meaningful	Instruction Provides for Reinforcement	Instruction Provides for Application		
	Yes	No							Yes	No						
1. Competence in acquiring and processing information about political situations.																
1.1 Students have the opportunity to use newspapers and magazines to obtain current information and opinions about issues and problems.																1.1
1.2 Students have the opportunity to use books, maps, charts, graphs and other sources.																1.2
1.3 Students have the opportunity to recognize the unique advantages and disadvantages of radio and television as sources of information about issues and problems.																1.3
1.4 Students have the opportunity to identify and acquire information from public and private sources such as government agencies and community groups.																1.4
1.5 Students have the opportunity to obtain information from fellow citizens by asking appropriate questions.																1.5
1.6 Students have the opportunity to evaluate the validity and quality of information.																1.6
1.7 Students have the opportunity to select, organize and use information collected.																1.7

TOTAL 10

TOTAL POSSIBLE SCORE 28

COMPETENCY 1 SCORE .369

(10 ÷ 28 = .369)

COMPETENCIES	MATERIALS: Curriculum Materials Do They Include These? Yes	MATERIALS: Curriculum Materials Do They Include These? No	MATERIALS CRITERIA: Materials Provide for Reflection & Debriefing	MATERIALS CRITERIA: Materials Are Personally Meaningful	MATERIALS CRITERIA: Materials Provide for Reinforcement	MATERIALS CRITERIA: Materials Provide Application	MATERIALS: TOTAL	GOALS: Your Goals: Are These Included?	INSTRUCTION: Your Instruction: Do You Teach These? Yes	INSTRUCTION: Your Instruction: Do You Teach These? No	INSTRUCTION CRITERIA: Instruction Provides for Reflection & Debriefing	INSTRUCTION CRITERIA: Instruction Is Personally Meaningful	INSTRUCTION CRITERIA: Instruction Provides for Reinforcement	INSTRUCTION CRITERIA: Instruction Provides for Application	INSTRUCTION: TOTAL	REASONS FOR MAKING THIS JUDGMENT
2. Competence in assessing one's involvement and stake in political situations, issues, decisions and policies.																
2.1 Students have the opportunity to identify a wide range of implications for an event or condition.																2.1
2.2 Students have the opportunity to identify ways individual actions and beliefs can produce consequences.																2.2
2.3 Students have the opportunity to identify their rights and obligations in a given situation.																2.3

TOTAL _____

TOTAL POSSIBLE SCORE 12

COMPETENCY 2 SCORE [.]

(___ ÷ 12 = . ___)

COMPETENCIES	MATERIALS								GOALS		INSTRUCTION								REASONS FOR MAKING THIS JUDGMENT
			CRITERIA										CRITERIA						
	Curriculum Materials Do They Include These?		Materials Provide for Reflection & Debriefing	Materials Are Personally Meaningful	Materials Provide for Reinforcement	Materials Provide Application	TOTAL		Your Goals: Are These Included?		Your Instruction: Do You Teach These?		Instruction Provides for Reflection & Debriefing	Instruction Is Personally Meaningful	Instruction Provides for Reinforcement	Instruction Provides for Application	TOTAL	
	Yes	No									Yes	No							
3. Competence in making thoughtful decisions regarding group governance and problems of citizenship.																			
3.1 Students have the opportunity to develop realistic alternatives.																			3.1
3.2 Students have the opportunity to identify the consequences of alternatives for self and others.																			3.2
3.3 Students have the opportunity to determine goals or values involved in a decision.																			3.3
3.4 Students have the opportunity to assess the consequences of alternatives based on stated values or goals.																			3.4

TOTAL _____

TOTAL POSSIBLE SCORE 16

COMPETENCY 3 SCORE [.]

(___ ÷ 16 = .)

COMPETENCIES	MATERIALS		CRITERIA					GOALS		INSTRUCTION		CRITERIA					REASONS FOR MAKING THIS JUDGMENT
	Curriculum Materials Do They Include These?		Materials Provide for Reflection & Debriefing	Materials Are Personally Meaningful	Materials Provide for Reinforcement	Materials Provide Application	TOTAL	Your Goals: Are These Included?		Your Instruction: Do You Teach These?		Instruction Provides for Reflection & Debriefing	Instruction Is Personally Meaningful	Instruction Provides for Reinforcement	Instruction Provides for Application	TOTAL	
	Yes	No								Yes	No						
Competence in developing and using standards such as justice, ethics, morality and practicality to make judgments of people, institutions, policies, and decisions.																	
4.1 Students have the opportunity to identify and, if necessary, develop appropriate criteria for making a judgment.																	4.1
4.2 Students have the opportunity to apply the criteria to known facts.																	4.2
4.3 Students have the opportunity to periodically reassess criteria.																	4.3
4.4 Students have the opportunity to recognize that others may apply different criteria to a problem.																	4.4

TOTAL _____

TOTAL POSSIBLE SCORE 16

COMPETENCY 4 SCORE [. . %]

(___ ÷ 16 = . ___ %)

COMPETENCIES	MATERIALS								GOALS		INSTRUCTION								REASONS FOR MAKING THIS JUDGMENT
	Curriculum Materials Do They Include These?		CRITERIA					TOTAL	Your Goals: Are These Included?		Your Instruction: Do You Teach These?		CRITERIA					TOTAL	
	Yes	No	Materials Provide for Reflection & Debriefing	Materials Are Personally Meaningful	Materials Provide for Reinforcement	Materials Provide Application					Yes	No	Instruction Provides for Reflection & Debriefing	Instruction Is Personally Meaningful	Instruction Provides for Reinforcement	Instruction Provides for Application			
5. Competence in communicating ideas to other citizens, decision makers, leaders and officials.																			
5.1 Students have the opportunity to develop reasons supporting their point of view.																			5.1
5.2 Students have the opportunity to present these viewpoints to friends, neighbors, and acquaintances.																			5.2
5.3 Students have the opportunity to present these viewpoints in writing to public officials, political leaders and to newspapers and magazines.																			5.3
5.4 Students have the opportunity to present these viewpoints at public meetings such as committees, school board meetings, city government sessions, etc.																			5.4

TOTAL _____

TOTAL POSSIBLE SCORE 16

COMPETENCY 5 SCORE [.]

(___ ÷ 16 = . ___)

COMPETENCIES	MATERIALS								GOALS		INSTRUCTION							REASONS FOR MAKING THIS JUDGMENT
			CRITERIA									CRITERIA						
	Curriculum Materials Do They Include These?		Materials Provide for Reflection & Debriefing	Materials Are Personally Meaningful	Materials Provide for Reinforcement	Materials Provide Application	TOTAL		Your Goals: Are These Included?		Your Instruction: Do You Teach These?		Instruction Provides for Reflection & Debriefing	Instruction Is Personally Meaningful	Instruction Provides for Reinforcement	Instruction Provides for Application	TOTAL	
	Yes	No									Yes	No						
6. Competence in cooperating and working with others in groups and organizations to achieve mutual goals.																		
6.1 Students have the opportunity to clearly present their ideas about group tasks and problems.																		6.1
6.2 Students have the opportunity to take various roles in a group.																		6.2
6.3 Students have the opportunity to tolerate ambiguity.																		6.3
6.4 Students have the opportunity to manage or cope with disagreement within the group.																		6.4
6.5 Students have the opportunity to interact with others using democratic principles.																		6.5
6.6 Students have the opportunity to work with others of different race, sex, culture, ethnicity, age and ideology.																		6.6

TOTAL _____

TOTAL POSSIBLE SCORE 24

COMPETENCY 6 SCORE [.]

(___ ÷ 24 = . ___)

COMPETENCIES	MATERIALS								GOALS		INSTRUCTION								REASONS FOR MAKING THIS JUDGMENT
	Curriculum Materials Do They Include These?		CRITERIA					TOTAL	Your Goals: Are These Included?		Your Instruction: Do You Teach These?		CRITERIA					TOTAL	
	Yes	No	Materials Provide for Reflection & Debriefing	Materials Are Personally Meaningful	Materials Provide for Reinforcement	Materials Provide Application			Yes	No	Yes	No	Instruction Provides for Reflection & Debriefing	Instruction Is Personally Meaningful	Instruction Provides for Reinforcement	Instruction Provides for Application			
7. Competence in working with bureaucratically organized institutions in order to promote and protect one's interests and values.																			
7.1 Students have the opportunity to recognize their interests and goals in a given situation.																			7.1
7.2 Students have the opportunity to identify an appropriate strategy for a given situation.																			7.2
7.3 Students have the opportunity to work through organized groups to support their interests.																			7.3
7.4 Students have the opportunity to use legal remedies to protect their rights and interests.																			7.4
7.5 Students have the opportunity to identify and use the established grievance procedures within a bureaucracy or organization.																			7.5

TOTAL _____

TOTAL POSSIBLE SCORE 20

COMPETENCY 7 SCORE [. %]

(___ ÷ 20 = . %)